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JOURNAL

OF THE

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL.



VQL. LVIII.

PART I. (HISTORY, ANTIQUITIES, &c.)

(Nos. I to 111.-1889: with 10 plates; also a Supplement with 2 plates.)

EDITED BY

THE MONORARY PHILOLOGICAL SECRETARY,

"It will flourish, if naturalists, chemists, antiquaries, philologers, and men of science in different parts of Asia, will commit their observations to writing, and send them to the Asiatic Society at Calcutta. It will languish, if such communications shall be long intermitted; and it will die away, if they shall entirely cease." SIR WM. JONES.

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JO.URNAL

OF THE

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL.

4

Part I.-HISTORY, LITERATURE, &c.

No. I.-1889.

Coins of the Muhammadan Kings of Gujarát.—By E. E. OLIVER, Esq.

(With 3 Plates.)

Looking over a large number of coins belonging to Mr. Furdoonjee, an enthusiastic numismatist of Bombay—in which Presidency he had exceptional opportunities for collecting the coins of the old Muhammanan dynasty of Gujarát—I find a good number that do not appear in the British Museum Catalogue, nor in the list given by Thomas, and that, so far as I am aware, have not yet been described. Supplemented with some from my own cabinet, I have filled two or three plates, which may be interesting in continuation of those described by Mr. Poole from the National Collection.

It is unnecessary to attempt any sketch of the dynasty, that for over a century and a half, ruled the destinics of Gujarát. One of the principal of those Muhammadan States that sprung from the ruins of Muhammad ibn Tughlaq's declining empire; and maintained more or less of splendour and of power, till they were once again reduced to provinces of Dehlí by Akbar. A useful general outline of the leading events is given in Mr. Stanley Lane Poole's introduction to the volume in the British Museum series above referred to, treating of the minor Muhammadan States; and the late Sir Edward Clive Bayley in his volume on the history of Gujarát, has brought together the more inter-

esting particulars as told by the native historians in the Mirát i-Ahmadí and the Mirát-i-Sikandarí.

In both, however, there is a little blank between the assassination of Mahmúd III., and the final incorporation of the State into the Mughal Empire. This is a period regarding which most historians are silent; probably for the very excellent reasons, that there are no very accurate materials, and the accounts of native writers are somewhat conflicting, while it is perfectly accurate and more easy to sum up the whole, as being "thirty years of anarchy."

Briefly, the outline of those thirty years of anarchy is somewhat

as follows: Maḥmúd III was murdered by a slave named Burhán in Maḥmúdábád, on the 12th Rabí'u-l-awwal, 961 II. (the eve of the 13th according to the Mirát-i-Sikandarí), which slave in addition entrapped and killed some twelve of the chief Gujarát nobles. Among those sagacious enough not to fall into Burhán's trap was one I'timád Khán. Originally a Hindú servant, this I'timád, whose name may be taken to signify "trusted," had risen under Maḥmúd to a most confidential position. His master even allowed him to enter the harem, and had put him in charge of the women. He had been made an Amír, and is spoken of as "prime minister." The morning after the murder, I'timád collected a faw followers killed Burhán meneced to positive and

collected a few followers, killed Burhán, managed to pacify the city and restore order. It was to him that the court of Mahmúdábád instinctively looked, to act as regent and to set about finding a successor to the throne. There seems little doubt, however, that whoever might be the nominal successor, I'timád determined to retain the substance of power in his own hands; and for the whole thirty years he was really the "king-

maker" in the back-ground.

The accounts as to the actual arrangements made by him vary somewhat. According to the A´ın-i-Akbarı´, he raised Razı´u-l-Mulk, "a son of Sultán Ahmad. the founder of Ahmadábád," to the throne. But Sultán Ahmad the first died in 846 H., 115 years before; and Razı´ı is spoken of as "very young!" The more probable version is given in the Mirât-i-Sikandarı´, the´author of which, Sikandarı´ı ibn Muḥammad, was born in 961 H.; and relates that the nobles having concerted together, asked I'timád Khán, who was acquainted with the Sultán's domestic affairs, whether the Sultán had left any son, or if any of the Sultán's wive´s were expecting a child: if so, they would wait till the child's birth before deciding on any arrangements regarding the kingdom. I'timád said no; the Sultán had not left any son, nor were any or his wives expecting a child. As he was well acquainted with the Sultán's affairs, and denied the possibility of any direct heir, they then asked him if there was any relative of the late Sultán'who was fit to

succeed to the throne, whom they might select. I'timád Khán replied that there was a relative of the Sultán at Ahmadábád, whose name was Ahmad Khán; they might send for him. Accordingly they sent Amír Razíu-l-mulk to fetch the boy. When Razí came to Ahmad Khán's house, the boy was standing at a grain-dealer's shop close by his own door, and was bringing away in the skirt of his dress some grain which he had bought for his pigeons. Razíu-l-mulk recognised him, got out of the cart, carried him off, and placing him in it, turned it round, and drove off, with very fast horses, to Maḥmúdábád. The Khán's nurse wept, and made a disturbance, saying: "What is this? Where are you going to take him?" Razíu-l-Mulk called out: "I am going to take him to a place where all the world will to-morrow crowd round his house, and where he will not find one friend."

The Amír's prophecy proved true. The boy king's career was a short and a sad one. He was placed on the throne on the 15th Rabí'u-lawwal 961 H. as Ahmad II.; the affairs of state meanwhile remaining entirely in I'timád's hands. On the coins he calls himself "Qutbu-d-dín, the son of Maḥmúd," titles also adopted by the succeeding puppet. Five years later Ahmad is described as flying from his capital for refuge with one of his courtiers, but as brought back defeated. On another occasion he tried other means to get rid of his powerful minister, when the latter, beginning to feel insecure, decided to get rid of the king. One account says I'timád killed him, another that Ahmad was found murdered outside the Palace walls on the 5th Sha'bán 968 II.

Having got rid of Ahmad, I'timád now raised a child named Nathú to the throne, "who did not belong to the line of kings," but who he swore was a son of Mahmúd's. The mother, when pregnant, had been handed over to him to make her miscarry, but, the child being five months old, he had not carried out the order. The nobles had to swallow this new variety of the story, and Nathú was placed on the throne as Muzaffar III.

It was the old story of a nominal king under a powerful minister, who was the real head of the Government, and who, though several of the Amírs had secured portions of the country and declined to recognise his authority, had become practically independent. In the account of the divisions and revenues of Gujarát, given in the Mirát-i-Ahmadí, I'timád's establishment and income is shown in 979 H. as all but equal to the nominal kings; he having 9,000 horse and 30 krors of "tank-chahs," against Muzaffar's 10,000 horse and 33 krors of tank-chahs; the remainder of a total of 30,000 horse and 90 krors of tank-chahs, being divided amongst some half dozen nobles. The result was incessant feuds. In 930 Akbar was invited by I'timád to occupy Gujarát, and

took possession of the capital on the 14th Rajab of that year. From then both the minister and king figure frequently in the accounts of campaigns under both Akbar and his generals. I'timád and other Gujarát nobles proclaimed Akbar's accession from the pulpits of the mosques, and struck coin in his name, for which loyalty Baroda, Champánír, and Súrat, were given to the former as tuyúl, but subsequently

mosques, and struck coin in his name, for which loyalty Baroda, Champánír, and Súrat, were given to the former as tuyúl, but subsequently he fell into disgrace and was made a prisoner. In 982 H. he had been released and was in charge of the imperial jewels. Two years after he went to Makkah, and on his roturn obtained Patan as a júgir. In 990 H. he was put in charge of Gujarát as governor, in succession to Shihábu-

d-dín, but the latter's forces rebelled, and went over to Muzaffar, who in I'timád's absence took Aḥmadábád, and set up as ruler again in 991 H. Shortly after I'timád went to Patan, where he died in 995 H. Muzaffar abdicated in favour of Akbar in 980 H., when he was in the first instance sent to Agrá, but subsequently remanded to close confinement. Some nine years after he escaped, and returning to Guja-

confinement. Some nine years after he escaped, and returning to Gujarát, collected a respectable force, defeated and slew Akbar's general Qutbu-d-díu Khán, and reascended the throne 991 H. (1583 A. D.). Akbar then deputed Mírzá Khán Khánán, the son of Bairám, to retake Gujarát. Muzaffar was defeated the same year in a couple of pitched battles, and fled to Júnágarh in Kattywár. There he was pursued by another of Akbar's generals Mírzá Khán-i-'A'zam, who hunted him down and captured him in Kachh in 999 H. No sooner was Muzaffar

another of Akbar's generals Mírzá Khán-i-'A'zam, who hunted him down and captured him in Kachh in 999 II. No sooner was Muzasfar handed over to the Mírzá than he asked permission to retire for a minute, and took the opportunity to cut his throat with a razor. With him terminated the dynasty of the Muhammadan kings of Gujarát, the kingdom then becoming a province of Dehlí. The coin No. XXXI is especially interesting as having been struck during the year in which,

for a brief period, Muzaffar managed to re-establish himself in Gujarát.

In the British Museum Catalogue there is a coin of 963, ascribed to Muḥammad, a pretender, and No. XXVIII of the series now published would seem to have somewhat similar titles and dates and also claim to be struck by a son of Maḥmūd, viz. on the Rev. Quibu-d-din Muḥammad Shāh, (bin) as-Sultin x 63, and on the Obv.. Nāṣiru-d-dunyā-wa-d-din Abu-l-

to No. IX of Mahmúd Sháh I., the son of Muhammad, and the reading might be reversed, x being 8 instead of 9, but Muhammad I. called himself <u>Ghyágu-d-dín</u> and not <u>Quibu-d-dín</u> I have not been able to trace any historical reference to the so-called "Pretender."

In order to facilitate comparison of dates, descent, or contemporary rulers, I add a genealogical troe of the Gujarát kings, and a table shew-

ing the contemporary rules in Málwá, Jaunpur, Kandaisk, the Dekkan

Fath Mahmúd Sháh. On the other hand it is very similar in character

and Dehlí, taken from Poole's very handy graphic scheme of the Muhammadan dynastics of India.

. (See Plates I—III.)

Of Ahmad Shah 1. I noticed in Mr. Furdoonjee's collection similar coins to the British Museum No. 408, but with the mint Ahmadábád for the years 832, 6, 842, 3*, and similar to No. 411 also with mint Ahmadábád, years 830-1-7. Of Ghiyágu-d-dín Muhammad Karím Shah the Museum list gives no dated specimens. Thomas records 849, 850 and (?) 856. The three now figured read 852, 3 and 5, the last named having the same inscription as in Thomas. The Museum catalogues no silver representative of Mahmud Shah Bigará; the famous Sultán of the moustachios. Thomas refers to three, of 891, 903 and 911. Neither give any mints: in fact, with one doubtful exception, none of the Gujarát series in the Museum catalogue are minted. In the list now given are silver coins of 864-7 (8) 70, 909; Aḥmadábád, 900, 903, and 911. In some cases the date is in words. The Museum list has two gold coins of Muzaffar Sháh II. Thomas's copper coins are dated 922-3-4 and The one now figured is dated 929. Two others have no name but may perhaps be put down to him (?), Ahmadnagar (9)17 and 922.

The inscription on No. XVIII of Bahádur Sháh appears to agree with No. 427 of the Museum, but I note the years 938 and 939. Mahmúd Sháh III. bin Latíf is unrepresented in the Museum catalogue. Thomas gives the years 946, 7 and 9. Among these now figured are the years 945,7 and 960. The suppositious king Ahmad II. is represented in the Museum catalogue by one copper coin; Thomas gives the dates 961—8. In the present list are the dates 961, in silver, x x 2, 963 and 8. Muzaffar Sháh III. in the Museum and in Thomas is represented by the dates 969, 971-7-8-9 and 930. The present list adds 991.

It is also worth while adding that among Mr. Furdoonjee's dated Bahmani coins, I notice, Ahmad Sháh I. like the Museum No. 454, the years, 836 and 828. Like the Museum No. 461, the years 843-5-6, 850-2-6. Like No. 467, the years 839, 842-3 and 850. Muhammad Sháh II. like No. 474, the years 863, 877 and 875, and a fine silver coin of (?) Ahsanábád of x 77 figured in the present list as No. XXXIV. A coin of his, figured as No. XXXV, also appears a novelty.

^{*} The above dates are all A. II.

Genealogical tree of the Muhammadan Dynasties of Gujarát.

1. ZAFAR KHÁN. Appointed Governor from Dehlí 791. Assumed independence at Anhalwárá 799 as Muzaffar Sháh I. Died.814.

Tátár Khán.

Tátár <u>Kh</u>án.

- 2. AHMAD I. Násiru-d-dín, 814 to 846. Founded Ahmadábád and extended his dominions considerably.
- 3. Muhammad, I. <u>Chiyásu-d-dín, Karím</u> 5. Dáúd, reigned 7 Sháh, 846 to 855. Given up days in 863. to pleasure and ease.
 - 2. Quību-d-dín, Ahmad Sháh, 6. Mahwúd I., Bígará, 863 to 917.
 855 to 863. The most famous of the line, founded Mahmudábád, took Júnágarh and Champánír.

7. Muzaffar II., 917 to 932.

8. Sikandar, 9. Mahmúd II., 10. Bahádur, daughter 'Adil Latíf Khán 932, murdered 932, a child 932 to 943. married to after a reign called Khán of of 46 days. Násir Khán. Kandaish.

- 11. Mirán Минаммар Fárúqí originally called Asirí, 943.
- 12. Mahmud III., 944 to 961.

13. Ahmad Shán II., 961 to 968.

14. Muzaffar Sπán III., 969 to 980, when Gujarát submitted to Akbar, but Muzaffar ruled for a short time again in 991.*

Contemporary Rulers in

A. II.	Gujarát.	Málwá.	Jaunpur.	Kandaish.	Dekkan.	Dehlí.
795 796	•		Khwájah i Jahán.		••••	Maḥmúd II.
• 797 799	Muzaffar I.	••••			<u>Gh</u> ivásu-d dín,	Nașrat.

^{*} The above dates are all A. H.

			•		,	
А. Н.	Gujar á t.	Málwa.	Jauupur.	Kandaish.	Dekkan.	Dehlí.
				1		
799	••••	••••	••••	••••	Shamsu-d- dín.	••••
800	••••		•	••••	Táju-d-dín Fírúz.	••••
802			Mubárak.	Náşir.		Mahmúd II.
803			Ibráhím.			• • • •
804		Diláwar	••••			
808		Hushang.				
814	Ahmad I.	••••	••••			• • • •
815	••••	••••	••••	::::	•	Daulat Khán Lodí.
817					·	Khizr Khán,
824		****		••••		Mubárak II.
825		••••		••••	Ahmad I.	
837	i	••••	••••	••••		Muhammad
	••••	••••	••••		.:	IV.
838		Muhammad.			Ahmad II.	•
839		Mahmud I.				
841				'Adil.		
841			Mahmud.			
845				Mubárak I.		
816	Mhd. Karim.					
847	Total Indiana		••••	••••	••••	'Alím.
855	Qutbu-d-dín.	••••	••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • •	Bahlol Lodí.
861	,	••••	Muham	Ghaní.	••••	Danioi Loui.
	••••	••••	Muḥam- mad.	Gnani.		••••
862					Humáyún.	••••
863	Dáúd.			Husain.		
863	Maḥmúd I.	••••				
865					Nigám.	
867	••••	••••	••••	••••	Múhammad II.	••••
880	••••	Ghiyás Sháh.	l	l	l	••••
881	••••	T	Becomes part of			••••
	1		Dehlí.	1	1	1
887					Maḥmúd II.	
894	••••				Becomes split	Sikandar II
					up into small provinces.	
906	,	Náşir Sháh.	ŀ	1	provinces.	
909	1	Tragit Buatt.	ĺ	Dáúd.		1
916	••••	Mahmud II.		A'zam Hu-		1
	••••	maymuu II.		máyún.		••••
917	Muzaffar II.		Ì	1	l	

••••

Muhammad I.

••••

• • • •

••••

Mubárak

II.

Ibráhim II.

Bábar.

••••

...

Humáyún.

923

926

930

932

932

932

937

938

942

Muzaffar II.

Sikandar. Maḥmúd II. Bahádur.

. . . .

Becomes part of Gujarát.

			ستد السيسب	c		
А. Н	Gujárat.	Málwa.	Jaunpur.	Kandaish	Dekkan.	Dehlí.
943	Muḥammad Fárúgí.					
944 946 952 960 961 962	Maḥmúd III.			••••		Sher Sháh. Islám Sháh. 'Adil Sháh. Ibráhím Súr. Humáyún.
963 969 974	Muzaffar III.	•		Muḥam- mad II.		Akbar.
980	Becomes a province of Dehlí.	q	•	·		••••

Ghiágu-d-dín Muḥammad Karím Sháh.

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I. Æ 65 64 grains. No mint. 855 H.

مُعِيد شَاءُ السُّلطَانِ الْ هُمُهُ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّذِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ اللَّهِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِينِ اللَّذِينِ الْحَدِينِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ الْحَدِينِ
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II. Æ '70 140 grains. 8(5) 2 H. ابرالمحامد المحمد شاء || السطان ... سلطان الاعظم || غياث|لدنيا... ۲ [ه] ۸ |

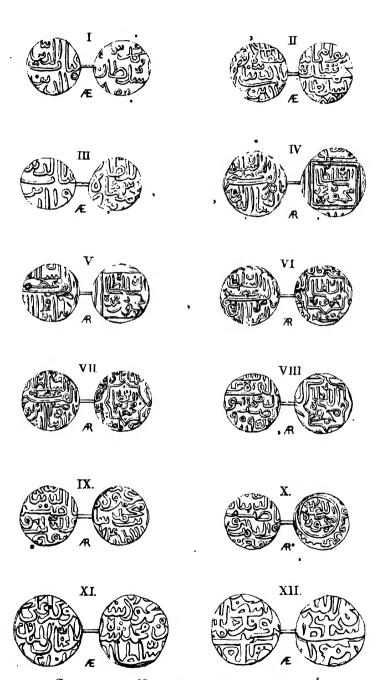
III. Æ: 65 72 grains. 853 H. سلطان اا صحمد ۳ شاق اا ۸۵ غیاث الدنیا اا والدین

Mahmúd Sháh I.

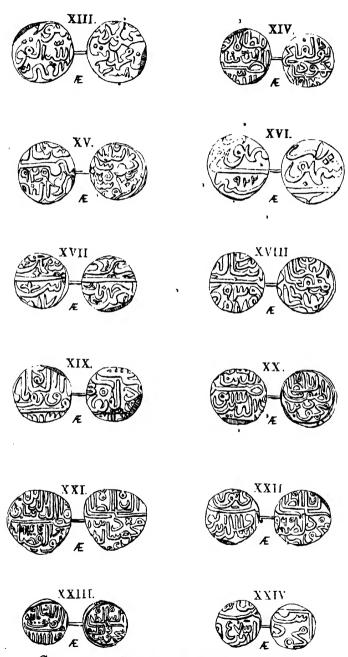
IV. A :80 165 grains: (?) Aḥmadábád. 911 H.
الدلطان || شاة شاة || محمود In square السلطان || الاعظم || ابوالفقع
بن محمد
|| نامر الدنيا والدين |
|| ... - || ذيدعمر . . margin

V. At 65 88 grains.
The same as No. IV, but without margin.

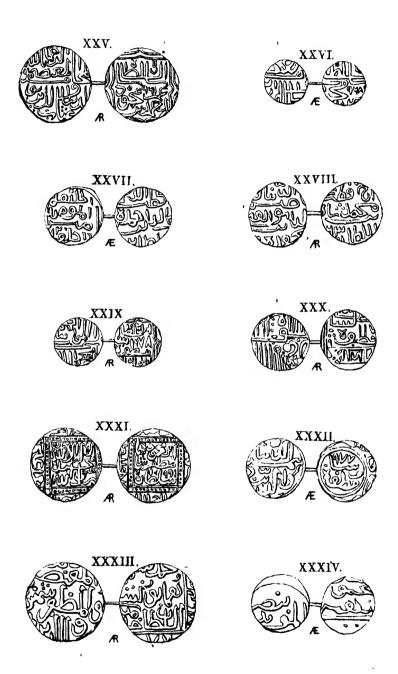
'VI. A 70 87 grains. Ahmadábád. 900 H.
Obv. same as No. IV. In lozenge السلطان المحمود شاة margin ... صغرب حمد الباد المعان الم



Coins of the Muhammadan Kings of Guzarát.



Coins of the Muhammadan Kings of Guzarat.



Coins of the Muhammadan Kings of Guzarat

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1889.] E. E. Oliver-Coins of the Muhammadan Kings of Gujarát.
                                                       903 H.
       VII. AR .70 85 grains.
                                 Ahmadábád.
                                          السلطان ال محمود شاة In lozenge
         Obv. same as No. IV.
                                                        [مو ..مو] ضوب
                                            margin
                                                حمد اباد [عروحاندانه ] ۱۰، و
                                                       909 H.
     VIII. AR 70 88 grains.
         Obv. as No. IV, with 909 H.
                                              Rev., variety of No. IV.
      Ditto. AR 50 42 grains. No date or mint Mr. Furdoonjee.
       IX. AR '70 146 grains. No mint. [8]64, [8]67 H. Ditto.
ناصرالدنيا إ والدين ابو اا الفتم
                                               محمود شالا | بن محمد شالا |
                                                     السلطان ١٢ [٨]
        X. AR '70 173 grains. No mint. (8)70 H.
                                                         Ditto.
                                         السلطان المحهود شاه In circle
         Obv. as No. IX.
                                                    .... سبعين و فما نما
                                         margin
        XI. Æ ·85 250 grains.
                                                            Ditto.
.. توكل على ١١ المحذان الهذان
                                                 محمود شام ا سمحمد شام
    ۱۱ - بول و ا .. ی
                                                        ال ا سلطان
      XII. Æ :85 245 grains.
.. لمؤيد بنصرا [الله] المه ...
                                           كليم الله إلى السلطان المحمود سوء
      ا .. بولغا ... ی
     XIII. Æ:75 160 grains.
المتون الله القون اللغني
                                              محمود شی. || بن محمد شی.
|| [ .سلطان ] ...
```

Muzaffar Sháh 11.

بوالفتيم ال محمود شافي ا [السلطان]

XV. Æ ·70 169 grains. 929 H. Mr. Furdoonjee

... السلطان ال صحمود شاة ال بن السلطان ال صحمود شاة ال بن السلطان ال معلقر شاة

*XVI. Æ ·75 160 grains. 922 H.

في شهور ال ۹۲۴ ال سنة

. Doubtful coins.

XIV. Æ 65 140 grains.

ا [و الدين]

.. اسلطان الأعظ . إ ناصر الدنيا

```
10 E. E. Oliver-Coins of the Muhammadan Kings of Gujarát. [No. 1,
    *XVII. Æ 65 143 grains, (?) Ahmadnagar (9)17 II.
                                         . . مرتضى الحمد [ نلو]
       في شهور السنة ال ٧١ [ ٩ ]
                            Bahádur Sháh.
    XVIII. Æ .75 175 grains.
                                                      939 H.
.. ص لدنيا .. لد . ين ١ ٩٣٩
                                           السلطان || مظفر شاع || بن || بهادر
       ال بظ ف ف .
Compare No. 427, British Museum Catalogue.
                          Mahmud Shah III.
    · XIX. Æ .80 180 grains.
                                                     Mr. Furdooniec.
                                      [ السلطان ] شالا شا . ا [ محمود ]
الوائق با 🛭 الله ما 📗 . . هم 🚛
      ... 1 ... 1/1
                                               श्रीराज ॥ खेर्घ ..
      XX. Æ .70 142 grains.
                                                         Ditto.
                                         محمود بن الطيف شاه الاالسلطان
     ... صر الديا إ والدين ابو ال ....
     XXI. Æ 80 159 grains.
                                                945 II. Ditto.
... قطب الدنيا والدين ال ابوالفضل
                                          السطان إشام شام المحمود [شام]
                                                       بن لطيف
                   9160
     XXII. Æ '70 137 grains.
                                                960 II.
                                                           Ditto.
.. وَ. ثق . لهد .. السف ...

 السلطان || شاء شاء || محمود

    ا لدنيا و الدين ابو
                                                          بن لظيف ه٣٩
    XXIII. Æ:55 69 grains.
الواثق باالله المفان [[.. محس
                                            السلطان | شاهشاه | صحمود بن
     .... 11 ...... 11
    XXIV. Æ 55 71 grains.
                                                    957 H.
  ... صرب لدنيا ال ٧ ه ٩ ال.. لدين
                                                  شالا | صحمود
                           Ahmad Sháh II.
```

XXV. A ·85 164 grains. 961 H.

الرحمن بالله || ابوالمحامد المعتصم المعتصم الله || ابوالمحامد المعتصم المعتصم المعتصم المعتصم | الدنيا و الدين || غياث |
المدن المحدد المحمد المحدد المح

^{*} Doubtful coins.

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1889.] E. E. Oliver-Coins of the Muhammadan Kings of Gujarát.
      XXVI. Æ:55 73 grains.
                                                968 H. Mr. Furdoonice.
                                          ...سلطان || شاه سـ ... || .. حهـ ...
  ... مـ .... عصہ ... ا .. نیا
       و الدين ابو...
                                                         بن صححه ...
     XXVII. Æ:70 140 grains.
                                               **2. *63. Ditto.
  الخليفة | اميرالمومنين | ...
                                            قطب الدن الو الدين احدد .... ه
      خلاف .. م
                                                          الم سلطان
                     Muhammad Sháh (?) Pretender.
    XXVIII. R:70 144 grains.
 . . أناصوالدنيا و || - لدين ابو الفقيم
                                         [... ان ] قطب ... | بن معهد شاع ||
      ا صح . ود ...الا
 Compare copper coins 437-9 in B. M. Catalogue.
                           Muzaffar Sháh III.
     XXIX. AR 60 73 grains.
                                             ال ال ا ۱۷ و شاء ا شاء مظفر ا
 المؤيد بقان الرحم ... الشمد موالد ...
      XXX. R .70 73 grains.
                                                     من سطان ال مظفر شام ال
      Obv. Inscription as No. XXIX.
                                                           सहाराज
              AR :50 36 grains.
                                          Ditto.
                                                        Mr. Furdoonjee.
     XXXI. AR .85 175 grains.
                                                991 H.
                                                             Ditto.
                                          ابن محمود شاع ا مظفر In square
In square معمد الله الالله الالله
                || رسول الله
                                                      شاع ال و و سلطان
... عا ... ابو ... المستونة ... المستونة ... المستونة ... العلم ... علي
                                           ..... ا الرحم margin
                                                       ورالد . مظ ...
   XXXII. Æ .75 179 grains.
                                                      977 H.
                                                 ۱۷۷ ا مظفرشاه
            شمس الدنيا ال و الدين
                    Muḥammad Sháh II., Bahmaní.
                                                               [doonjee.
  XXXIII. AR .95 166 grains.
                                     (?) Aḥsanábád. x77.
                                                              Mr. Fur-
المعتص .. [ بالله ] ١١ ...
                                      . عبد شه الهايونش، In square
والمظفر عمس ... ا والدين
                                               وروا السلطان خلي خلفي
                                       margin ... vv .... [[1] ... = 1]
```

Mahmud Shah II., Bahmani.

XXXIV. Æ ·70 146 grains. المريد || بنصر

ورو و ال صحبورو ال يهوني

Ruins and Antiquities of Rámpál.*-By Asutosh Gupta, Esq., C. S.

Unlike Upper India, studded with monuments of ancient history, the Delta of the Ganges presents few places of interest to the antiquarian. Lower Bengal is generally as devoid of picturesque scenery as of objects of antiquarian interest. We have all heard of Saptagrama and Suvarnakáragráma and their once flourishing commerce with the West, but what remains to show their ancient greatness? No Colossus, no Forum, not even a Hindú temple. Still there are a few places here and there, such as Gaur and Nadiyá, which cannot fail to be of interest to the diligent antiquarian or the student of history, and Rampal is one of them. It is not so widely known as it deserves to be. It is now a straggling hamlet, situated approximately in Lat. 23° 38' and Long. 90° 32' 10", being about four miles to the west of Munshiganj, the head-quarters of the subdivision of that name in the district of Dacca (Dháká), corresponding with the old fiscal division of Vikrámpur. It was the seat of the old Sen kings of Bengal, and notably of Ballal Sen, whose name has been handed down to posterity as the founder of Kulinism in Bengal.

Such is the case with Rámpál and the dynasty that reigned here. The ruins, as the sequel will show, are not so important and interesting as in Gaur and a few other places in Bengal. But there is abundant evidence to show that Rámpál was once a royal city. The large Rámpál Dighí, or the artificial lake of Rámpál, the huge mound, to which tradition points as the Bárí or the palace of Ballál Sen, the very broad roads and the existence of innumerable bricks which can be found buried under the earth wherever you dig in Rámpál and its environs, are unmistakeable indications of a ruined city of palaces. Old bricks of small size were found in such abundance in and around Rámpál, that they were carried in vast quantities to Dacca for build-

^{* [}Compare with this paper General Sir A. Cunningham's account of the same sites and legends, in his Archwological Survey Reports, vol. XV, pp. 132—135. The two accounts differ in some minor details. Ep.]

ing purposes. Such is still the case with Gaur. Many stone idols of Hindú gods and goddesses have been found buried under the earth. There is a huge stone idol of Vishnu near the templo of Siva in Atpará, about a mile west of Rámpál, and I have seen many smaller idols collected by a Vaishnava in 'Abdulláhpur.

Rámpál appears to have been the only seat of the Sen kings up to the death of Ballál Sen, but the later kings of the dynasty lived at Suvarnakáragráma, Gaur and Nadiyá. Suvarnakáragráma, locally called Shonárgáon, is also in the district of Dacca, being about four miles from the existing Bandar of Baidya Bazar on the river Meghná. Lachhman Sen, son of Ballál Sen, generally lived at Gaur, which, according to the Muhammadan historians, he greatly embellished, and called after his name Iakhnautí or Lakshmanavatí. Nadiyá was the seat of the last Sen king of Bengal, when the Muhammadans conquered the country. It was in his time that Rámpál attained the highest pinnacle of its glory. The principal works, the ruins of which still exist in some form or other, are attributed to him. Rámpál seems to have been neglected, if not altogetber abandoned, after the death of Ballál Sen. Lachhman Sen, his son and heir, lived principally at Gaur.

I now approach the solution of a problem which has already evoked much animated discussion. I mean the question of the caste of the Sen Rájás of Bengal. Before submitting my own opinion on the subject, I will briefly examine the different theories that have been advanced, and the evidence on which they are based. I have obtained much assistance from the two articles of Rájá Rájendralála Mitra on the Sen Rájás of Bengal, and the Bengali work on the same subject by Kailásh Chandra Sinha, to which Mr. Beveridge, one of the honoured members of the Asiatic Society, very kindly referred me, and also from the Bengali book by Mahima Chandra Majumdar called 'Claude Brahman'. Three theories have been advanced about the caste of the Sen Rájás:-(1) that they were Kayasthas, (2) that they were Vaidyas or of the medical caste and (3) that they were Kshatriyas. The first theory is that of Abu-l-Fazl and the Muhammadan historians. It is not supported by any evidence other than the statement of the Muhammadans, who are likely to hold erroncous views on the subject of Hindú castes. It was never seriously entertained by the Hindús and may be summarily rejected. The second theory is supported by tradition handed down from generation to generation not only in Vikrámpur, the old seat of the Sen Rájás, but throughout Bengal, and was universally believed, till Rájá Rájendralála Mitra in 1865 tried to establish that the Senas were Kshatriyas. This third theory is the most recent one. It was first propounded by Rájá Rájendralála Mitra, a very high authority in matters antiquarian and supported by others. It is based on some epithets of the Sen kings found in the inscriptions discovered in Rájsháhí, Dinájpur and Baqarganj, and also in the Sanskrit work Dánaságara of which Ballál Sen himself is the reputed author. These I will consider in the two following paragraphs.

Tradition must give place to reliable material evidence if the one is really inconsistent with the other; but before discarding a universal belief, the evidence should be most carefully interpreted. The evidence on which the theory of the Sen Rajás being Kshatriyas is based is the following. In the inscriptions, found in the districts of Dinájpur, Rájsháhí and Baqarganj, the Sen Rájás are described as descendants of the lunar race, and as only the Kshatriyas have a right to trace their descent from that race, it is held that the Senas must be Kshatriyas. In the inscription discovered by Mr. Metcalfe in Rájsháhí, Sámanta Sen is described as a Brahma-Kshatriya, original Sanskrit is स अञ्चलियाणामजनि कुल्मिरोदाम सामनासेनः। Dr. Mitra's rendering of अञ्चलियाणां कुलिएरोदाम is 'a garland for the head of the noblest Kshatriyas.' According to him, the word say therefore here means 'noble' or 'exalted.' With due deference to so great an authority, I am of opinion that this meaning is not the correct one here. We have various Sanskrit words compounded with अस such as असचारी, असराचम, असदित्य, असवादी, असदिष्ड, and so forth, and in in all of these the word sag retains its original radical meaning of Brahmá or Bráhmana. I therefore see no reason why it should not have the same or a similar meaning in the present instance. Dr. Mitra has not assigned any reason why he takes say to mean 'noble,' which is certainly not the commonly accepted meaning of the term, and cannot be found in the ordinary Sankrit dictionaries. At any rate this meaning would be a far-fetched one. The word ब्रह्मचर्च occurs in the Yajur Veda, and is explained by the annotator as meaning नवाजान-चनवीर्ध्य or 'knowledge of the Brahmanas or the Vedas and heroism of the Kshatriyas.' It is therefore not a caste epithet, and following the analogy, we can take ब्रह्मचिय to mean 'a person who has the knowledge of the Brahmanas or the Vedas and the heroism of the Kshatriyas,' that is, one who combines both these qualifications; and the clause in question may mean 'a garland for the head of those who have the wisdom of the Brahmanas and the heroism of the Kshatriyas. without any reference to race or caste. The word अस्वान also occurs in Adhyaya 21, part IV, of the Vishņu Puraņa, and is explained by the annotator Sridhara Swamin to mean 'that race from which Brahmanas and Kshatriyas sprung'. The meaning seems to be obscure. The word

probably means a mixed race of Bráhmanas and Kshatriyas-a race

sprung from Bráhmanas on the father's side and Kshatriyas on the mother's. We have it from the Mahábhárata that when the Kshatriya race was being exterminated by Parasuráma, the women of that caste began to marry Bráhmanas, and Vasishtha himself is credited with having married Kshatriya women. From that time the race of pure Kshatriyas is said to have become extinct. In Adhyaya 24, part IV, of the Vishnu Purána, Mahánandi is said to be the last king of the Kshatriya race. His son Mahápadmánanda was born of a Súdra mother, and from him began the reign of Varnasankara kings or 'kings of mixed castes.'

The above will I think be sufficient to show that Dr. Mitra's interpretation of the word Brahma-kshatriya is most probably not the correct one. I have now to consider the description of the Sen Rájás as descendants of the lunar race. It is a well-known fact that all the princes of India, whether real Kshatriyas or not, have tried to trace their descent from the solar or lunar race of that caste. Even the Rájás of Chutiyá Nágpur, whom Colonel Dalton very rightly thinks to be of the aboriginal Cole or Munda origin, claim to be real Rájpúts, and following their lead, the inferior landholders, who, are undoubtedly aboriginal Mundas, are gradually setting up claims to be Hindú Rájpúts. I found this process in full operation when I was in Chutiyá Nágpur three years ago. If the Sen kings belonged to the Sankara race or any of the mixed castes, is it not very likely that they would aspire to be Kshatriyas and trace their descent from the lunar race, and their panegyrist Umápati Dhar, a poet and a famous adept in the art of exaggeration, would exalt them into members of the race of the moon? Even now the Súdras of Bengal are looking up. Some time ago there was a movement among the Kayasthas for taking the yajñopavíta or 'the sacred thread,' on the assertion that they were originally Kshatriyas; and at the present moment there is a similar movement among the Suvarnavarnikas, who now claim to have been originally Vaisyas.

In the Baqarganj plate, found by Mr. Prinsep, the title of Sankara Gaudeśwara is repeatedly applied to the Sen Rájás. The word Gaudeśwara, no doubt, means the king of Gaur or Bengal, but it is not easy to explain the real meaning of the word sankara here. It is said to be written with palatal s. Dr. Mitra takes it to mean 'excellent,' but he has not shown any reason for assuming this meaning, which cannot be found in the ordinary Sanskrit dictionaries and is certainly not the commonly accepted import of the term. According to the dictionaries and the common usage of the word, it is, when a substantive, a synonym for Siva or Mahádeva, and when an adjective, it means 'auspicious.' I find Mr. Prinsep translating the

phrase as 'the auspicious lord of Gour.' It is well known that the Sen Rájás, at least some of them, were Saivas, or worshippers of Siva, and the phrase may mean 'the lord of Gaur, a worshipper of Siva (Sankara).' But none of these interpretations seem to me to be appropriate. I am of opinion that the word śankara here is an euphuism for sankara, with a dental s, and then it must mean a mixed race, a suggestion which has been noticed in Dr. Mitra's paper. This meaning will be a very appropriate one. Mistakes of a palatal s for a dental one and vice versa are not uncommon in the old inscriptions, and when we remember that the inscription in question was written in the Tirhút or Gaur type, which represents an intermediate stage of orthography between the Kutila and the modern Bengalí character, the commission of such an error is all the more likely. Srídhara Swámin, the annotator of the Bhágavata, mentions the commencement of kings of the Varnasankara or the mixed castes in India in his time.

In his own work the Dánaságara,* Ballál Sen does not call the Sen dynasty Kshatriya, but applies the epithet অব্যাহিত্যই, which means 'following the practices of Kshatriyas'. So in the 6th stanza of the inscription in the copper-plate found in the Sundarbans, the epithet of হাজন্মধনীয়ে, which virtually means the same thing as অব্যাহিত্যই, is applied to Lachhman Sen. It therefore appears that the Sen Rájás are never distinctly described as Kshatriyas. Does not this show that they were not pure Kshatriyas but belonged to a mixed caste? If they were Kshatriyas, why is it not so stated in unequivocal terms? There is a legend current in Vikrámpur that Ballál Sen was born of a Bráhmana father, the river-god Brahmaputra, who visited his mother in a dream in the form of a Bráhmana. Does not this indicate the mixed nature of the Sen race?

I will, now briefly consider the evidence on which the theory that the Sen Rájás were Vaidyas is based. In the various Kulapanjikas or genealogies of the Ghaṭaks as well as in the Laghubharata, A'disúr, Ballál Sen, and other Rájás of the Sen family have been distinctly described as members of the Vaidya caste. It is very likely that Devatívra Ghaṭaka, Kavikauṭhahára and other Ghaṭakas of the Varendra Bráhmaṇas, who lived about four centuries ago and composed the genealogies, knew the true caste of the Sen Rájás.

My contention is that the inscriptions of the Sen Rajas are not

^{* [}In his Book of Indian Eras, p. 77, General Sir A. Cunningham ascribes this work to "Haláyudha, the spiritual adviser of Lakshmana Sena," referring as his authority to Rájá Rájendralála Mitra, in his paper on the Scha kings, in the Journal A. S. B., vol.XXXIV (1865), p. 137. But this is an error, Dr. Mitra there quotes a Sanskrit verse, ascribing the work to Ballál Sen. Ed.]

inconsistent with the genealogies of the Ghatakas and are therefore not opposed to tradition. I think the inscriptions support the view that the Senas were of the Varna Sankara or mixed caste. Manu recognises three classes of mixed castes: (1) Múrdhávasikta, or those born of Bráhmana fathers and Kshatriya mothers, (2) Ambashtha, those of Bráhmana fathers and Vaisya mothers, who are identical with the modern Vaidyas, and (3) Máhishya, born of Kshatriya fathers and Vaisya mothers. There was no practical difference between the Ambashthas and Mahishyas, and Vidyábhúshana, the author of Laghubharata, called the Máhishyas Vaidyas. He calls Vira Sen or Adisura, the founder of the Sen family, a Máhishya. Remembering that they were Kshatriyas on the father's side, the Máhishya or Sen Rájás of Bengal naturally traced their descent from the lunar race of Kshatriyas, and this explains the epithets in the inscriptions recently discovered. Probably the Máhishyas and Vaidyas became gradually amalgamated, and the Sen Rájás came to be regarded as Vaidyas. I am finally of opinion that the Sen Rájás were never pure Kshatriyas, nor originally Vaidyas, but were Múrdhávasiktas or Máhishyas, who were both allied to the Vaidyas. The distinction afterwards wore away, and the Senas became gradually amalgamated with the Vaidvas.

I will now proceed to describe briefly the principal ruins and objects of interest in Rámpál. I have visited them several times during my incumbency as subdivisional officer of Munshiganj, and carefully collected all the traditions and legends by which they are enlivened. First of all, I will take the Masjid of Ba-A'dam* or the mosque consecrated to the Muhammadan fagir of that name. It is a pretty large, strong, brick-built mosque with a high arched dome. The bricks are of the same small size which characterize old Muhammadan architecture. The mosque has two massive stone pillars which are apparently snatched from a Hindú temple, and which tradition identifies as the gadús or clubs of Ballál Sen. It is in a dilapidated state, but is worth preserving. It has a stone tablet in front which bears an Arabic inscription, a reduced facsimile of which is herewith published (see Plate V). It will be observed that it states that the mosque was built by Bádsháh Fath Sháh bin Sultán Mahmúd in 880 Hijrí or 1475 A. D. It is therefore 414 years old. The faqir to whose memory it is dedicated died, however, in 1106 A. D., (supposing Ballál Sen to have died_after a reign of forty years) or 369 years before the mosque was orected.

^{* [}The real name of the faqír is Báhá Adam, of which Ba-Adam is a more, valgar corruption,; another corruption, Báhardam, is mentioned in Arch. Survey Rep., vol. XV, p. 134. Ed.]

[†] There is a similar mosque with a somewhat similar inscription in Qúzí Qaş-

There is the following legend about the death of the faqir and the fate of Ballál Sen. There lived a Muhammadan family in Kanai Chang, a village south of 'Abdullálipur and not far from Rámpál. The master of the house had no children. One day a faqir came and begged alms of him, but he refused alms, saying, "I-will give no alms, when Alláh has not given me the boon (child) for which I am praying so long." The faqir predicted that he would beget a child and asked him to sacrifice a bull to the altar of Allah when his desire was fulfilled. He then went away without any alms. In course of time the man had a son born to him, but the Hindús would not allow him to sacrifice a bull. He therefore repaired to the lonely jungle, south of Kanai Chang, and secretly sacrificed a bull. Taking as much meat of the bull as he and the members of his family would be able to consume, he buried the remainder under the ground and returned home. A kite, however, snatched a morsel of the flesh from him, and another kite trying to snatch it the morsel fell down in front of Rájá Ballál Sen's palace. On enquiry the king learned the whole story and ordered the child, to commemorate whose birth the bull was sacrificed, to be brought before him and killed the next day. The Muhammadan learned the king's decree and at night escaped with his wife and child and as much property as he could carry. He fled to Arabia and, meeting Hazrat Adam, a fagir, at Mecca, told him all that had happened. Learning that there was a country in which there was no religious toleration, and people were not at liberty to practise their own religious rites, Hazrat Adam came to Rámpál with six or seven thousand followers. Ba-Adam is only another name for Hazrat Adam. He began to sacrifice bulls and cows on the spot where the mosque dedicated to him now stands. Rájá Ballál Sen sent his ultimatum, asking him either to leave the country or fight with him. The faqir chose the latter alternative, and a protracted warfare took place between his followers and the king's army. The battles were indecisive for many days, and the loss of men on both sides was heavy. At last the faqir's followers were reduced to only one hundred men. One day Rájá Ballál Sen's men, while going to the market, saw the faqir alone reading Namaj (saying his prayers). The king marched to kill the faqir at this juncture, but as he was diffident of success, he constructed, before leaving his palace, a large agnikunda or funeral pyre (literally 'a pit of fire'), which still exists in the form of a large pit, and asked the women of his household to kill themselves by throwing themselves into the fire, if he was vanquished and killed. He bah, two miles from Rámpál. It is described in page 76 of Blochmann's Contributions to the Geography and History of Bengal, (Jour. A. S. B., vol. XLII, p. 284.) [See the note at the end of this article. ED.]

took a pigeon in his coat and proclaimed that the bird's return to the palace without him would mean his death and serve as a signal for the females of the house to perish in the flames to save their caste and chastity. Ballál Sen came to the faqir and struck him with the sword, but the faqir was invulnerable and the sword would not cut his skin. After concluding his prayers, the fagir asked Ballal what brought him there. "To kill you," replied the king. The fagir asked him whether he would embrace the Muhammadan faith or not. The king of course answered in the ne-The faqir said: "It is so ordained that I shall die at your But no sword other than my own will cut me. So take this sword and kill me." Ballal took the sword thus offered and killed the faqir at one stroke. His body was cut into two parts. His head flew to Chittagong, where there is still a prayer-house consecrated to him. His body was buried at Rámpál, and the mosque was subsequently erected over his remains by the Bádsháh after the Muhammadan conquest of Bengal. After the death of the faqir, Ballal went to the tank to bathe and purify himself. As he left his gory clothes on the bank, the pigeon, unobserved, flew to the palace, and at this signal the females of the royal household threw themselves into the fire and perished. Soon finding that the pigeon had flown away, Ballal rode to his palace, but it was too late. Finding that all his family was killed and life was not worth living, he threw himself into the fire and perished in the flames.

Such is the legendary account of the death of Ball'il Sen and the fall of Rámpál. The city appears to have been abandoned after his death, and I think there is a substratum of truth in the legend. It is a historical fact that the Arabs were the first race of Muhammadans who invaded Hindústán, and it is not unlikely that their missionary expeditions penetrated as far as Bengal in the eleventh century and fought the Sen kings who had no standing army. The Pál kings regained their ascendancy in this part of Bengal after the death of Ballál. It has been asserted, and not without some show of reason, that Lakshmaniya, after his flight from Nadiyá, took refuge in old Vikrámpur. and he and some of his descendants lived in Rámpál or Sunárgáon, and maintained their sway in this part of Bengal during the early years of Muhammadan rule. It is mentioned in the Bengali book on the Sen Rájás of Bengal by Kailash Chandra Sinha, that probably there was a second Ballál Sen who reigned after the Muhammadan conquest. It first struck me that if there was a second Ballál Sen, he must be the prince who reigned at Rámpál and killed the faqir Ba-Adam and afterwards himself perished in the funeral pyre, thereby putting an end to the Sen dynasty. But the theory is not based on any reliable evidence, while tradition distinctly says that the Ballal Sen who killed the fagir

was the founder of Kulinism and the most distinguished prince of the Sen dynasty.

The next object of importance is the Rámpál Dighí* or the artificial lake of Rámpál. Formerly it was about a mile long and about 500 yards broad. It is now fast silting up and remains dry for nearly half the year. Cultivators have now broken up parts of the lake and grow boro paddy in it. The following is the traditional account of the origin of the lake. Rájá Ballál Sen once promised to excavate a lake, as long as his mother would be able to walk in one direction without stopping, and this he undertook to do in one night, namely, the night immediately following the pedestrian performance of his mother. So one afternoon the queen-mother walked out of the palace and proceeded towards the south. After she had walked some distance, the idea suddenly crossed the king's mind, that if she walked much further, he would be unable to cut such a large lake in one night and keep his word, and if he once broke the promise he made to his mother, he would be doomed to eternal hell. After a short reflection he hit upon a dexterous device. He asked his servants to suddenly touch his mother's feet and paint them with red pigment (alaktaka), giving out that a leech bit her and was sucking blood. The strvants did so, and the stratagem had the desired effect. The queen-mother stopped, and the point whence she returned homewards became the southernmost boundary of the lake. On that very night the king collected innumerable men and excavated the whole lake. It was so large that one bank was not visible from the other. But for a long time the lake remained dry. Guided by a dream. Rámpál, an intimate friend and, according to another account, maternal uncle of Ballal Sen, one day rode into the lake, and assembling a large number of men on its banks, asked them to call it after his name, when it was filled with water. As soon as he entered into the lake, water streamed up from beneath and filled it in a moment. But Rámpál vanished. Everybody cried: 'Rámpál, Rámpál,' but he could no more Since that time the lake is called Rámpál Dighí.

This explanation of the genesis of the lake's name never satisfied me. Rámpál is also the name of Ballál Sen's city. Is it not very strange that Ballál's city and the largest lake he excavated should be named after an obscure person unknown to history? Rámpál is certainly the name of a person and is analogous to the names of Bhím Pál and other Pál kings of Bengal. I conjecture that he was a king of the Pál dynasty which reigned at Rámpál after the death of Ballál Sen, and that it was he and not Ballál who excavated the lake, and the city and the lake have been named after him. To the north of the Búrhí-

^{*} Rámpál Dighí or the artificial lake of Rámpál.

Gangá there are still many ruins to show that the Pál kings reigned in that part of Bengal, and it is a historical fact that they flourished both before and after the Sen dynasty. But as they were Buddhists ruling over a population, the mass of which were Hindús, their names have not been handed down to posterity with that halo of glory which surrounds the Sen kings, who were orthodox Hindús and great patrons of Bráhmans and Brahmanical learning. Again, it is a well known fact that one of the characteristics of the Pál kings was to excavate large lakes and tanks wherever they lived. The Mahipál Dighí, still existing in Dinájpur, is perhaps the largest lake they cut in Bengal. For all these reasons I am of opinion that the prince who gave his name to the city and lake of Rámpál was a king of the Pál dynasty.

There is another but smaller lake in Rámpál. It is called the Kodál-dhoá (the spade-washing) Dighí. It is about 700 cubits by 500 cubits, and is still very deep. Tradition has it that when the excavation of the Rámpál Dighí was over, each digger scooped out a spadeful of earth from a place close by, and thus the Kodál-dhoa Dighí was made. The story of course is fiction pure and simple, invented to show that myriads of men were engaged to excavate the Rámpál-Dighí.

The next object of interest is Bárí Ballál Sen or Ballál Sen's palace. It is a very large and high mound of earth, surrounded by a deep moat, about 400 yards by 800 yards. No architectural remains are visible. The cicerones point to a large black pit inside the ruins as the Agnikunda or funeral pyre in which perished Ballál Sen and his family.

Another object of interest in Rámpál is the everlasting Gajariyá tree. It is a large living tree standing on the north bank of Rámpál Dighí. It is about 100 cubits high and has two large straight stems. Trees of this species abound in this part of Bengal, and there is nothing peculiar in its appearance: only it shows no signs of age or decay, though it is undoubtedly very old. It is said to be immortal and existing from the time of Ballál Sen. Respectable men of seventy and eighty years of age, whose testimony I am unable to disbelieve, have told me that they saw the tree in its present state of growth from their very boyhood. The tree is certainly a botanical curiosity. It is held in high veneration by the Hindús, and various stories are current about its virtues and sanctity. It is worshipped by the women, particularly by the barren ones, who besmear it with oil and vermilion in hopes of being cared of barrenness. A faqir is said to have violated its sanctity by cutting a root, but he instantly vomited blood and died. No one would now venture to tear a leaf or lop off a branch. A small fair is annually held under the sacred tree on the eighth day of the moon in the month of 60Q.

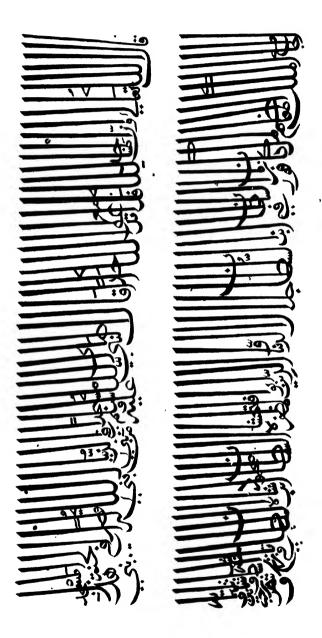
Chaitra, when it is worshipped by pilgrims from various parts of the subdivision.

The following legend explains the origin of the Gajariyá tree's immortality. It was at first in a decayed state and was used for tying Ballál Sen's elephants. One morning some hermits (Rishis) presented themselves before Ballál Sen's gate to confer a boon on the king as a reward for his piety. They sent their message to the king by his doorkeeper. The man went in and returning said that the king was smoking and was unable to come out that instant. After awhile he was again sent in. This time he returned with the news that the king was besmearing his body with oil. The door-keeper was sent in again and again, but he always returned with some excuse or other for the king's inability to come out and receive them. Once the man found the king bathing, and again taking his noontide meal, and the third time taking his siesta. He never communicated the message to the king, but only went in to observe whether he had leisure to come out. Disgusted with the king, the hermits left the palace, but at the time of departure they blessed the Gajariyá tree and conferred on it the boon of immortality which was originally intended for the king. Instantly the tree showed signs of vitality. Leaves and blossoms sprouted forth in every direction, and the people were struck with awe. The king came out shortly afterwards and, being apprised of the news, immediately sent for the hermits. But it was too late. The hermits had vanished.

There is a comparatively small tank in the south-west part of Rámpál, which deserves a passing notice. It is called Rájá Haris Chandra's Dighí. It is overgrown with trees and shrubs which are flooded over with water for a week once a year at the time of the full moon in the month of Mágh. Before and after this period the tank is dry. I have as yet received no satisfactory explanation of the phenomenon—The tank is said to have been excavated by Rájá Haris Chandra, probably one of the kings of the Pál dynasty.

There is a mosque called Qází's Masjid not far from Ba-Adam's. It is an ordinary plain-looking prayer mosque, which was certainly erected after that of Ba-Adam. It boasts of no inscription, but has several stone idols of Hindú gods and goddesses in its verandah, which the proprietors have evidently preserved as trophics of Islám. The present Qází of the mosque showed me a firman of the Emperor 'Alamgír, granting lands for the benefit of the institution; but I cannot vouch for its genuineness.

There are two roads the construction of which is attributed to Ballal Sen. The one connects the river Dhaleswari on the north with the Padma on the south, and the other goes in a different direction from



INSCRIPTION OF JALÁLU-D-DÍN FATH SHÁH. DATED 888 A. H., IN THE MOSQUE OF ÁDAM SHAHÍD, NEAR RÁMPÁL.

LITHOGRAPHED BY A L. PAIN, CALCITIA, 1889.

Rámpál right up to the Padma. The latter is called Kachkí Dwarja. The roads are now overgrown with trees and shrubs, and have in many places been broken up by the cultivators' plough, but what still remains clearly shows that they were once spacious roads as wide as thirty cubits. I once proposed to utilize the first mentioned road in constructing one from Munshíganj to the Police outpost at Rájabárí, a distance of about twelve miles, but it was found impracticable. The Kachkí Dwarja is named after the fish of that name. The astrologers had predicted, so the story runs, that Rájá Ballál Sen would die of bones of fish sticking in his throat. To avoid such an unnatural and painful death, the king refrained from cating any fish, except the kachkí which was devoid of bones. He therefore constructed the road to the Padma, to enable fishermen to supply his table daily with the boneless fish.

[Note by the Editor.—The inscription, of which a reduced facsimile, based on three ink impressions, is published in Plate V, leads as follows:

قَال اللهُ تَعالِم وان الْمُساجد الله فلا تدعوا معالله احداً قال النبيّ مُلى ... I Jine 1 الله قال النبيّ مُلى ... المُسجِد اللهُ عليه وسلم مَن بني مسجّداً في الدُّنيا بني اللهُ له قصراً في الجنة بني هذا المسجِد اللهُ عليه وسلم مَن بني مسجّداً في الدّنيا السّلطان ابن السّلطان جلال ... Line 2

الدّنيا و الدّين ابوالمظفر فقحشاة السلطان ابن صحمود شاة السلطان في تاريخ اوسط شهر رجب سفة ثما و ثمانين ثمنهاية

It is dated "in the middle of the month of Rajab in the year 888 A. H., during the reign of Jalálu-d-dín Fath Sháh." Mr. Gupta reads the date as "the 2nd day of Rajab 880," on the authority of a Maulawí of Dacca, who deciphered the inscription for him. But this is certainly wrong. The date can be quite clearly read. It is expressed in words: above as sanat there is المعاشفة samánín; above samánín again is أمانين samanamiyat (sic); below the latter word is one waw, and below samánín is the other waw of the date. Thus the whole reads sanat samá wa samánín wa samánamiyat, i. e., eight and eighty and eight hundred. Nor does the date specify "the 2nd day," but simply says ausat or "thormiddle."

On comparing this inscription with that published by Blochmann in this Journal for 1873, Vol. XLII, p. 284, there can be no doubt that the two inscriptions are identical. There are, indeed, three slight divergences. In the date Mr. Blochmann reads but the inscription has only without the final nún). This is apparently a mere blunder

Mr. Gupta, in his footnote (pp. 17, 18) says: "There is a similar mosque with a somewhat similar inscription in Qází Qaşbah, two miles from Rámpál," and he is disposed to identify this inscription with that published by Blochmann. This identification is quite untenable. have obtained four impressions of this second inscription, three through Mr. Gupta, and one through Maulawi Abul Khair Muhammad Siddiq, the Superintendent of the Dacca Madrasah. Unfortunately the inscription is too badly preserved to be wholly read, but luckily the date is sufficiently legible to show that the month is Zi-l-Qa'dah, and and that the year is expressed in figures as well as in words. The figures are 976. This is quite sufficient to preclude the identification of this inscription with that published by Blochmann. Moreover this inscription is incised in three lines, while that of the Adam Shahid mosque, published by Blochmann and now republished by Mr. Gupta, occupies only two lines. In fact, Mr. Gupta was misled by an error in Blochmann's account, or rather by an error of Dr. Wise, whose account Blochmann quotes. Dr. Wise says that "the Masjid of Adam Shahid is in Bikrámpur, at a village, called Qází Qaşbah, within two miles of Balálbárí, the residence of Ballal Sen." But this is quite wrong; the mosque is not "two miles from the Balálbárí," but only "about half a mile to the north of it," as General Sir A: Cunningham, from whom Blochmann received the inscription, distinctly-states (see his Arch. Surv. Rep., Vol. XV, p. 134). It, therefore, occupies the precise position described by Mr. Gupta. Dr. Wise, in his account,—it is clear,—confused two mosques, one of Adam Shahid at Rámpál, and another placed by him and Mr. Gupta at Qází Qaşbah. The exact locality of the latter mosque, however, would seem to be the Rikábí Bazár, to judge from Maulawí Abul Khair's letter, quoted below. There are four mosques in or near Qází Qáşbah, and these four mosques seem to have been more or less confused by the several writers on the subject: and the confusion probably arose from the circumstance that Qází Qaşbah is a name applied to a large area, apparently including the localities of all four mosques.

In order to clear up the matter as much as possible, Maulawí Abul Khair, at my request, was good enough personally to visit the different localities and himself procure impressions of the two inscriptions. I subjoin the substance of his interesting letter.

"As arranged I went yesterday to Munshigani to see the mosque at Qází Qasbah. I took with me as my guide a man who proved to be not so well acquainted with the locality as I expected. He had informed me that there was another old mosque at Rikábíbazár [No. I] which was close to the ghát where we were to land from the steamer. We landed at about 110'Cl. and proceeded to the latter mosque. We found it to be in a dilapidated condition, though there were signs of its being used as a prayer-house. It appeared to have been an edifice of, elegant structure with a floor, 15 cubits square, and one dome. The bricks are all polished and carved, and the corners and edges are so neat that from a distance they seem to be stones. The cement used is a whitish substance, not ordinary súrkhí and lime, but perhaps powdered stone and lime, or something else. There was no inscription in the mosque, but on enquiry we learnt that the stone was removed and placed in another mosque [No. II] in the neighbourhood recently built. 'There we repaired and found the inscription. The stone not being good many of the letters are corroded, and are not decipherable. I have taken an impression, however, which I send to you in a separate cover for whatever use you may think fit to make of it. It is dated seven hundred and odd, which I could not read. The name of the month is Zi-l-Qa'dah.

"We then proceeded towards Qází Qaşbah, and after a tedious journey reached the mosque [No. III]. My disappointment was great when I found that the mosque, though old, did not present any interesting feature, the construction being of an ordinary type, no ornamentation or elegance having been attempted. Besides there was no inscription; the stone I was informed had been removed by the Collector of Dacca, during the proceeding of a lawsuit between rival claimants to some land belonging to the mosque. The only interesting thing that we found there was a Hindú idol, carved out of a block of stone, lying with the face downward and forming a step to the verandah of the mosque. I had become so fatigued that I feared I would not be able to return to the ghát without some sort of conveyance. But none was available. I was, however, informed that the route we had taken was a circuitous one, and that the ghat would not be very far from that place by a short-cut through Rampal. I further learnt that we would pass by the mosque of Bábá Adam [No. IV]. This news somewhat enlivened me, and I was on my legs again. We passed by the famous Ballálbárí, of which I saw the ditch about a hundred yards wide. The Ballálbárí or palace of

Ballal Sen seems to have been an entrenched fortress of which only the trench and some ruins now remain as a memorial. Not far from this I found the tomb of Adam Shahid or Bábá Adam and the mosque [No. IV]. This edifice is also in ruins, but presents an interesting view to the archeologist or antiquary. The structure is of the some style as that of the mosque at Rikábíbazár [No. I], but more exquisite and ornamental. The cement is of the same nature, the bricks polished and carved. The roof consists of six domes supported by two stone pillars in the middle of the hall. One of the domes does not exist, and another has partly fallen down. The pillars are monoliths of a whitish stone, which always "perspire," and lead ignorant people to associate superstitious ideas with them, as they see water flow down on their surface, and feel them very cold. I saw marks of red pigment on the pillars, which I heard were put there by Hindú women, (and I believe by Musalmán women too, though the Khádim denied this) on making vows for the attainment of some object. The stone bearing the inscription is placed very high, so that it could not be distinctly read. I discovered, however, that the copy I have sent to you was only of one line, there being another line above it of which no impression was sent to me. As it was already very late in the afternoon and I could not wait for a scaffolding being put up, I could not obtain an impression. The inscription published by Blochmann is, I believe, of this mosque, and he was not very wrong in giving the name of the place as Qází Qasbah; for Qází Qaşbah extends over a large area, and the place where this mosque stands is also included within it. This fact decides the dispute as to the name of the place being given by Blochmann as Qází Qaşbah and by Bábú Asutosh Gupta as Rámpál. It may be called by four different names, viz., Qází Qaşbah, Rámpál, Ballálbárí and Durgábárí. The inscription is quite legible, no letters have been destroyed or mutilated, the stone being jet black and well polished, not liable to corrosion. The Khadims showed me twelve places in the interior of the mosque, where, they said, lay twelve stones of great value which were removed by Mags during an incursion into Bengal in remote ages. These stones, they said, shone in the darkness of the night and illuminated the hall.! Some things have been dug out of the walls, no doubt, but whether they were stones of great value which shone in darkness I cannot vouch. This mosque at any rate is an object of interest to the antiquarian."

From another letter of his, I may quote the following passages:
"The mosque at Qází Qaşbah [No. III] is not known as the mosque

"The mosque at Qází Qaşbah [No. III] is not known as the mosque of Bábá Adam or Adam Shahíd. It is called Qází Bárí mosque. Ballálbárí is situated near the mosque [No. II] of Adam Shahíd and not near Qází Qaşbah; and Ballál Bárí and Rámpál are only two names of the

same place. There is no one's tomb near the mosque of Qází Qaşbah. As for the inscription, no one can say what it contained. The other mosque, of course, is called after Bábá Adam or Adam Shahíd and is situated in Durgábárí, which is close to Rámpál or Ballálbárí, at a distance of about half a mile. And Ballálbárí and Durgábárí both stand at a distance of a mile from Qází Qaşbah. The tomb and the mosque are lying unrepaired. Some religious man has the charge of the mosque, and prayers are said therein. The mosque has two domes between which there are two stone pillars one on each side. There is no courtyard outside the mosque. The mosque of Qází Qaşbah [No. III] also has two domes but no courtyard and pillars. There are stones at the threshold carved into images and placed overturned."

I have numbered the mosques in the above quoted extracts by corresponding numerals.

No. I. Mosque of Rikábí Bazár; a beautiful structure, similar to the mosque of Adam Shahíd at Rámpál (No. IV); with only one dome; its inscription, dated in the month Zi-l-Qa'dah 976 A. H., removed to mosque No. II. It is the mosque referred to in Mr. Gupta's footnote (p. 17), as situated "in Qází Qasbah, two miles from Rámpál;" it is also apparently the mosque, said by Dr. White to be "within two miles of Ballálbárí at a village called Qází Qasbah" and erroneously called by him the Adam Shahíd mosque (No. IV).

No. II. A mosque recently built near mosque No. I; contains the inscription belonging to No. I.

No. III. An ordinary plain mosque, with domes, but with no pillars, also with Hindú carved images in the floor of the verandah; its inscription removed to Dacca; referred to by Mr. Gupta towards the end of his paper (p. 22).

No. IV. Mosque of Adam Shahid, close to Rámpál, at the distance of about half a mile; a highly ornamental structure, resembling the Rikábí Bazár mosque (No. I); with the inscription (Plate V) dated "in the middle of Rajab, 888 A. H., in the reign of Jalálu-d-dín Fath Sháh;" described by Dr. White (quoted by Blochmann) in Journal A. S. R., Vol. XLII, p. 285, General Sir A. Cunningham in Arch. Survey Reports, Vol. XV, p. 135, and Maulawí Abul Khair, as possessing six domes, of which, according to Dr. White, three, but according to Maulawí Abul Khair only two have fallen in, while General Sir A. Cunningham does not notice the destruction of any of them. On the other hand, Mr. Gupta, who describes it as a "brick built mosque with a high arched dome," would seem to allow it only one dome. In that case, he would seem to have confused it with the mosque (No. I) at Rikábí Bazár, which Maulawí Abul Khair states to have only one dome.]

The Namuchi-myth; or an attempt to explain the text of Rigreda viii. 14. 13.—By Charles R. Lanman, Professor in Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass., U. S. A.

The fact has been recognized, ever since the earliest days of Vedic study, that the myths of the Veda are the poetic outgrowth of certain natural phenomena. The fact appears, for example, from the work of Yaska, when he quotes the opinion of his predecessors. And the natural basis of any given myth is usually not difficult to ascertain. Such, however, is not the case with the one now in question. The text cited above reads:

. चर्पा फेनेन नम्चेः शिर इन्द्रोदवर्तयः। विका यदक्य स्पृष्टः॥

It is commonly understood and rendered as follows: 'With the foam of the waters, Namuchi's head, O Indra, thou didst cut off, when thou wast conquering all thy focs.'

There is no doubt about the incorrectness of this interpretation. Nevertheless it is an exceedingly ancient one, as appears from the legends into which this brief allusion of the Vedic Samhitá is expanded in the Brahmanas. From the Brahmana-passages* and from the explicit language of Sáyanat, it is clear that the water-foam was conceived as the actual weapon with which Indra cut off the demon's head. fable says that Indra used this most remarkable weapon because he had sworn to Namuchi, saying, "Neither by day nor by night will I slay thee, neither with the mace nor with the bow, ... neither with the dry nor with the wet." And so, in order to slay him, without perjuring himself, Indra smote the demon at twilight, which was neither day nor night, and with the foam of the water, which was neither dry nor wet. 'He cast the water-foam into (the shape of) a thunderbolt'—चपां फेन वस्त्रमिसन्-literally, & The water-foam he made by pouring or founding (as molten metal) to be a bolt.'

All this is quite in keeping with the style of the Brahmanas; and it follows naturally enough from the text of the Samhitá, provided we misunderstand it as did the authors of the Brahmanas. But to my mind there is no conceivable natural phenomenon of which this may be re-

^{*} See Çatapatha Br., xii. 7. 3; Táittiríya Br., i. 7. 1. These passages, with one from the Mahábhárata, are conveniently assembled by Muir, in his Sanskrit Texts, iv². 261.

[†] फेनेन तस्य शिरिशक्देद...सपां फेनेन वसीभूतेन॥

garded as the mythical reflex. We are therefore led to inquire, did not the words of the sacred text mean something different from what even the ancients themselves supposed them to mean? I believe that they did and that the misunderstanding can be accounted for.

I suggest that the Vedic text be translated: 'With water-foam Namuchi's head, O Indra, thou didst cause to fly asunder, when thou wast conquering all thy foes.' This appears to me intelligible if we assume that the natural phenomenon to which it refers is a waterspout ('trombe') on an inland lake. How, now, does this view accord with the natural facts in question and with a strict verbal exegesis of the text?

Major Sherwill has given a description of Bengal waterspouts in the Journal of this Society for 1860, volume XXIX., p. 366 f., along with some excellent pictures. And in a German work of Th. Reye, entitled Die Wirbelstürme, p. 17 f., further information and pictorial illustration may be found. The waterspout is of course an object of terror, and it is most natural that it should be personified as a demon. The verb वर्तेचित्रम् means 'cause to rotate,' and the motion is qualified as upward and outward motion by the proposition चड. The compound चडवतेय: means accordingly, 'thou didst cause to move upward and outward or to fly asunder with a gyratory or centrifugal motion.' It is not possible to express by one simple English phrase the ideas involved in the compound; but they seem to me to be quite simple in themselves and to follow unforced from the Sanskrit and to be thoroughly suitable for the not infrequent phenomenon of a waterspout as seen by unscientific The head of the column is twisted and made to burst asunder and scatter itself 'with foam' (फेनेन, as an instrumental of accompaniment), i. e, in abundant foamy masses. Then, with the dispersion of the column, often comes (see Sherwill, p. 370, Reye, p. 32) a heavy rain. This is all in entire accord with the usual representations of gracious Indra's deeds of prowess.

In particular, also, it accords most strikingly with the quite differently expressed idea of Rigveda v. 30. 8b (= vi. 20. 6b), where Indra is spoken of as 'twirling (like a stick of attrition or like a churning-stick) the head of the demon Namuchi,'

शिरी दासस्य नमुचेभैद्यायन्। and that, immediately after the couplet in stanza 7,

चना दासस्य नमचेः भिरो यद् • चवर्तयो मनवे मातुमिच्हन्।

This explanation of the stanza in question, moreover, harmonizes well with the succeeding stanza, Rigveda, viii. 14. 14,

मायाभिवस्मिष्यत इङ्ग सामायवचनः। चन दस्रुरधन्याः॥

in which Indra is praised for hurling down the demons that were striving with magic wiles to creep up and to scale the heights of heaven. To the poetic fancy, nothing would suggest more naturally the idea of demons trying to scale the heavens than the sight of this strange magical ladder betwixt earth and sky.

In this connection, the discussion of Bergaigne, La religion védique, ii. 346-7, should be compared. The language of the śloka at Mahábhárata, v. 10. 37 = 328 seems also to favor my view. The whole epic passage is a reminiscence of the Namuchi-story.

The false interpretation of the ancients, finally, rests simply upon the ambiguity of the instrumental case form উৰৰ. The case might denote the relation of accompaniment—as it really does here; or it might denote the relation of means—as the authors of the Bráhmanas supposed it to do. 602.

On some new or rare Muhammadan and Hindú Coins.—By DR. A. F. RUDOLF HOEENLE.

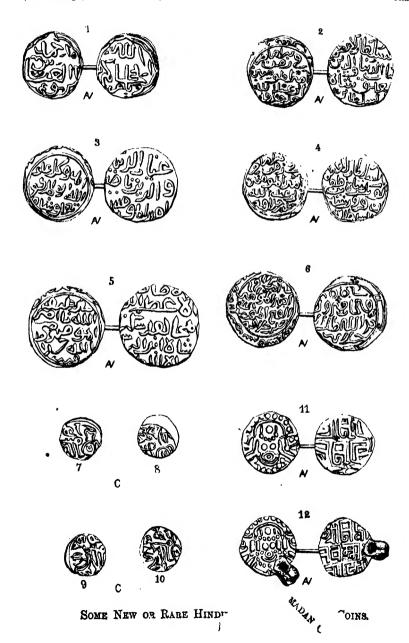
In July and September last I received from the Deputy Commissioner of Hoshangábád, in two instalments, a hoard of 477 gold coins, which had been found in a field in the Sohágpur Tahsíl of the Hoshangábád District, by some ploughmen while ploughing their field.

This hoard was carefully examined by me, and a detailed report published in the *Proceedings* of the Society for December 1887.

Among the 477 coins, there were 451 belonging to different (so-called) "Pathán" emperors of Dehlí; 4 belonging to the Mughal emperors Aurangzíb and Farruh Siyar, 1 belonging to the Bengal king Sikandar bin Ilyás, and 21 silver-gilt forgeries.

The "Pathán," emperors of whom there were coins, are Ghiyágu-ddín Balban (1 specimen), Muizzu-d-dín Kaiqobád (1), Jalálu-d-dín Fírúz (1), 'Aláu-d-dín Muḥammad (391), Ghiyágu-d-Tughlaq I. (3), Muḥammad bin Tughlaq (24), Fírúz Sháh (19), Fírúz Sháh and Fath Khán (2), Fírúz Sháh and Zafar (2), Ghiyágu-d-dín Tughlaq II. (2), Abú Bakr bin Zafar (1), Muḥammad bin Fírúz (1), Maḥmúd bin Muḥammad bin Fírúz (1), and Maḥmúd bin Muḥammad bin Tughlaq (1).

Most of these coins belong to more or less well-known types, which have been already published in Thomas' Chronicles of the Pathán Kings



of Dehli. See details in the 'report above referred to. It will be seen from that report, that in the present hoard there are several types of coins which were still noted as "unique" in Thomas' book; e. g., the coin of Jalálu-d-din Fírúz (Chron. No. 120), several of Muhammad bin Tughlaq (Chron. Nos. 172, 179), one of Fírúz Sháh (Chron. No. 226), one of Fírúz Sháh and Zafar (Chron. No. 245). There are in it also some coins, which are not to be found in Thomas' Chronicles, though they have been published elsewhere: thus two of Mahmúd bin Muhammad bin Fírúz (with Abu-l-Muzaffur, as published by myself, in this Journal, vol. LII, p. 213, for 1883), and one of Mahmúd bin Muhammad bin Tughlaq (published by, Mr. Delmerick in this Journal, vol.

The most important in this collection of "Pathán" coins, however, are five, which, to the best of my knowledge, are unique, or at least have never been noticed or published. These are the following (see Plate IV).

XLIII, p. 97, for 1874).

1, One coin of Muhammad bin Tughlaq (Plate IV, No 1). It reads as follows:

The reverse seems to bear a date, consisting of two numerals. One of them, 5, is distinctly seen by the side of $ab\dot{u}$; but the other above the s of 'Abbás is obscure. As the Khalif Abu-l-Abbás Ahmad reigned from 741-753, the date of the coin can only be 745. This coin has some similarity with Muhammad bin Tughlaq's copper coin, No. 218 in Thomas' Chronicles.

2, Two coins of Chiyásu-d-dín Tughlaq II. He is mentioned in Thomas' Ohronicles, as the twenty-first king (A. H. 790-791 = A. D. 1388). He reigned only a few months, as the rival of Muhammad bin Fírúz and Abu Bakr. Thomas' Ohronicles only notice "silver and copper" coins of his (p. 302). The present collection contains two gold coins of his, of two different types. The first (Plate IV, No. 2) reads as follows:

 Obv.
 Rev.

 في رُّمن الأعلم
 السُّلطَان الأعظم

 أمير المومنين
 غياث الدُّنيا و الدين

 أبي عبَّداً لله
 تغلق شاء

 خلدت خلافته
 السلطاني

..... دهلي ۱۱ [۷] Margin : on reverse

It was struck at Delhi, in the year 791. The mint is distinct on the margin, but the date is only partially preserved. There can be no doubt, however, of its being a coin of Tughlaq II., and not of Tughlaq I., on account of the mention of the Khalif Abi 'Abdullah. This Khalif only ascended the throne in 763 A. H., while Tughlaq I. died already in 725 A. H. Abi 'Abdullah's Khalifat lasted, with interruptions, down to 808 A. H. This identification I owe to Mr. Chas. J. Rodgers, of the Archæological Survey, to whom I showed the coin.

The second (Pl. IV, No. 3) reads as follows:

Margin, on reverse: illegible.

This coin is also shown to be one of Tughlaq II., by the mention of the Khalif Al Mutawakkal 'Ali Allah, who is the same as the above mentioned Abi 'Abdullah. The execution of this coin is rather crude, especially of the word Abu-l-Muzaffar.

3, One coin of Abú Bakr, the son of Zafar Khán and grandson of Fírúz Sháh. He succeeded Tughlaq II., but only reigned for a little more than a year, from 791 to 792 A. H. In Thomas' Chronicles (p. 303) he is noticed as the twenty-second king, but only copper or silver copper coins of his are described. The present collection contains one gold coin, which reads as follows (Plate IV, No. 4):



There are kint traces of a margin on the reverse, which probably gave the mint and date.

4, One coin of Sikandar bin Ilyás, one of the independent kings of Bengal. For some account of him, see this Journal, vol. XXXVI, p. 58, and vol. XLII, p. 256. So far as I am aware, only silver coins of his have hitherto been discovered; they have been described and figured by E. Thomas, in vol. XXXVI. The coin in the present collection is of gold, and reads as follows (Plate IV, No. 5):

 Obv.
 Rev.

 يمين خليفة
 الاما العالم ابو

 الله ناصر امير
 الاعظم ابو

 المومنين خلد
 الحجاهد سكندر

 الله خلا
 شالا ابن الباس

 فته
 شالا السلطان

There was a margin on the reverse, which probably contained the mint and date, but it is quite mutilated. The readings are identical, and their arrangement nearly identical, with those on Thomas' type No. 4 (or coin, No. 22) in vol. XXXVI, p. 64. The mint, accordingly, would seem to have been Firúzábád.

To these five coins I add another which is not new, as it has been already described by Thomas in his *Chronicles*, p. 298. But I am not aware that it has ever been figured; and the present specimen has the further advantage of having preserved a portion of the margin on the reverse, giving the mint and date. It is a coin bearing the joint names of Fírúz Sháh and his son Fath Khán, and reads as follows (Plate IV, No. 6):

..... که في سنه احد که

Fath Khán was made co-regent in 760 A. H., and the Khalíf Abu-l. Fath whose name appears on the reverse, reigned from 753-763 A. H. It follows that the date of the coin, of which only the numeral 1 is preserved, must be 761. The name of the mint I am unable to read.

I take this opportunity to publish figures of two copper coins of Saifu-d-dín al Hasan Qurlagh. They belong to the well-known "Bull and Horseman" type, already noticed by Thomas in his Chronicles, p. 96 (No. 82). They show on the obverse a horseman with the legend, in Nágarí characters, A Thir: S'rí Hamírah; and on the reverse a humped bull, also with a Nágarí legend. The latter, as given by Thomas, is A THIRE S'rí Hasana Kurala; and this is, no doubt, the style in which it is met with in by far the greater majority of specimens. But occasionally the name is found in full THE Kurlaka. Among a number of 100 of these coins, discovered not long ago in Sháhpúr in the Panjáb, and examined by me, I found about a dozen giving the full name (see

Proceedings for December 1888). On Plate IV, I give the reverses of four specimens (Nos. 7—10). No. 7 shows the usual form কুৰে kurala, but No. 8 has distinctly কুৰেন kuralaka (the ভ l is slightly injured); No. 9 reads স্বী ভ্ৰত কু S'ri Hasana Ku, and No. 10 has স্বী ভ্ৰত কুৰে S'ri Hasana Kurala.

I also take this opportunity to publish two gold coins (Plate IV, fig. 11, 12) which I found among a lot of 506 coins collected by Bábú P. C. Mukherjí, on special duty with Archæological Survey, and forwarded to the Indian Museum in Calcutta. They belong to the class commonly known as 'Kanauj coins.' Coins of this description were issued by the Kulachuri kings of Chedi, the Gaharwár (Rathor) kings of Kanauj and the Chandel kings of Khajuraha. As the two coins, here published, are said to have been found in Khajuraha, I think it most probable that they are Chandel coins, though I feel uncertain as to their exact attribution.

No. 11-I propose to read.

श्री मत्य Sri Mat Pa-रमाई ramarddi देव Deva

No. 12-may be read.

त्री मद्दी Sri Mat Vi- or त्री मद्दा Sri Mat Bá-रवक्ष ra Varmma* खबस * la Varmma* * देवी * Deri * देवी * Devi

The final long i of devi seems clear; but it is puzzling.

The king to whom No. 12 belongs, I take to be the 20th of General Sir A. Cunningham's list of Chandel kings (Archaelogical Survey Reports, Vol. XXI, p. 80), viz. Víra Varmma, who reigned from about 1240—1280 A. D. Or it might be Bála Varmma, mentioned by Mr. V. A. Smith in his paper on the "History of Bundelkhand" (Journal, B. A. S., Vol. Li, p. 19); but he appears to have been only one of the younger scions of the regal house, and would not have been entitled to issue coins in his name.

No. 11 I take to belong to the well-known Paramárddi Deva (the 18th of Gen. Sir A. Cunningham's list), who reigned from about 1165—1203 A. D., and fought with the famous Prithví Ráj and Qutbuddín Aibak.

If my attributions are correct, both the coins now published would appear to be unique. For the only Chandel coins hitherto known and published, so far as I am aware, are those noticed by Gen. Sir A. Cunningham in his Archwological Survey Reports, Vol. X, pp. 25—27 (see his Plate X). They belong to the following five Chandel princes: Kírti Varma (12th of the list), Hallakshana Varma (13th), Jaya Varma

(14th), Prithví Varma (16th), Madana Varma (17th). Then follows Paramarddi Varma (18th), a coin of whom is now published for the first time. I may note, however, that Gen. Sir A. Cunningham's coins, Nos. 15 and 16 on his Plate X (Vol. X), appear to show some resemblance to my No. 12. They too seem to read devi. They are marked on his Plate as "unknown."

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Part I.-HISTORY, LITERATURE, &c.

No. II.-1889.

Life of Sum-pa Khan-po, also styled Yeses-Dpal-hbyor, the author of the Rehumig (Ohronological Table.)—By Вави Sarat Снапока Das, C. I. E.

This great Lama was born in the year 1702 A. D. (Tree-monkey of the 12th cycle of 60 years) at a place in the neighbourhood of the Dgon-luñ monastery of Amdo in ulterior Tibet. He is better known by his family name of Sum-pa, which means one from the country of Sum, a province in Western Tibet. In his infancy he is said to have given indications of his identifying himself with the spirit of his predecessor. While very young he learnt to read and write with extraordinary facility. . He became well known by the name of Sumpa-Shabs-druft. He was admitted into the monastery of $D_{\mathcal{G}}$ on lun in the 9th year of his age. He received instruction in the sacred literature of the Buddhists under Lchan skya Rinpo-chhe $\hat{\mathbf{N}}$ ag-Dva $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ chhos ldan) and Thu Kwan chhos kyingya-mtsho and other great Lamas. From Lchan-skya he received the vows of monkhood, who gave him the name Yeses Dpal hbyor. He studied metaphysics, logic, rhetoric, poetry, Buddhist liturgy, ritual, and the dogmatical and theoretical differences of the various Buddhist schools. He also learnt arithmetic, Aedicine, the science of vocal music, the works on Sútras and Tantras, and the art of sacred painting. With the acquisition of all this learning he was occupied till the twentieth year of his age. In addition to acquiring all the virtues and talents of his predecessor, he gained the highest proficiency in astronomy, astrology and the science

His fame of learning surpassed that of all other Lamas of his age in Tibet, China, and Mongolia. In the twentieth year of his age he visited Tibet proper, and took his admission as a student in the monastery of Hbras-sPún (Dapún). In the year 1725 he visited Gtsan, where he took the final vows of monkhood from Panchhen Blo-Issan Yeses. In the 22nd year of his age he went on a pilgrimage to Lhokha with a view to visit Sam-yea, and the famous sanctuaries of Yarlun, where he was very much pleased with an interview with Rgya Isras Rinpochhe (Nag Dvan Hjigs med). Rgyal-sras is said to have explained to him in a prophetic manner what he was destined to achieve and how he should proceed to Amdo, for the purpose of founding monasteries and temples there, and also for diffusing Buddhism in China. In his 23rd year he was appointed MKhanpo (abbot) of Sgo Man in Hbras spun. In the following year, when a dispute arose between the two provinces Dvus and Gtsan, he persistently declined to allow the monks of his college to take up arms against their enemies, as it was an act prohibited by the laws of Buddhism. The monks of other colleges followed his example and desisted from fighting. He filled the chair of Sgo-man for a period of five years, after which he returned to Amdo. In the 30th year of his age, in pursuance of the prediction of Rgyal-sras, he founded the monastery of Bshad Sgrub-glin with about eighty monks. He brought the recluse hermitage of Bsam.gtan-glin ri-khrod with fifteen monks, which was founded by Dpal IDan hod sser, under his own monastery, and afterwards called it by the name of Sum-pa rikrod. At the age of thirty-four, at the command of the emperor Chhin-lun (divine protector), and in the 2nd year of his reign, he visited China. Both Lchan skya Rol-pahi rDorje and he were presented to the emperor, who asked them many questions on religious matters. Sumpa Khanpo is said to have answered all of them without any difficulty whatever. Pleased with him the emperor commanded that he be appointed the spiritual guide of all the chiefs of Mongolia, and he also conferred on him a high sacerdotal rank by letters patent, and authorized him to bear the title of Huthogtu (saint). The Lama respectfully accepted all the imperial favours, with the exception of the title of Huthogtu which honour he respectfully declined, according to him it being intended for those who aspired to worldly glory. The emperor was struck with the Lama's indifference to such a high honour, and remarked that within his vast empire he did not know one who like him could look with indifference at such an exalted distinction. Henceforth he rose high in the esteem of the emperor and was declared to be a real Lama. He resided in China for nine years. The emporor occasionally used to call him to his presence. The Lchan skva. who presided at the head of Labrang (church), commanded that all

the Tibetan books on Buddhism extant in China should be revised by Sumpa, which he did to the great satisfaction of all. He therefore gave him the clerical title of Ertené (precious) Pandita. He presented him with a diploma inscribed on a yellow scarf. Once on every month the emperor used to give him audience and converse with him on religious matters for several hours. He resided for five years in Peking, during which time he enjoyed the esteem and the veneration of the Manchu and the Mongol residents and the pilgrims of Peking. At the time of his return to Amdo, which he performed via Dolonor and Khar shonpo he received considerable presents from the emperor, Lchan-skya and the great Wangs (chiefs) of China and Mongolia. At Rivo-rtse lna (Woo-thai) he stayed one year in order to perform religious worship in the great sanctuary of Manju Ghosha. In his northward journey he visited Alaksha, receiving immense presents from the Mongols, whence he proceeded to Dgon-lun. Being indifferent to worldly comforts, he'did not like much ostentation, and consequently kept few retainers and servants. In the 43rd year of his age he was appointed to the headship of Dgon-lun monastery. Out of the immense wealth he had acquired in China and Mongolia he used to send large presents to the Panchhen and Dalai Lamas, to the great monasteries of Sara, Hbras-spun, Dgah Idan, Bkra sis lhunpo, &c. He also set up innumerable Buddhist images, inscriptions and chhortens &c. His works are voluminous and many. Being dissatisfied with the existing works on astronomy, astrology and chronology of Tibet, he wrote a dissertation on them after collating 20 works by different authors. He found the works of Mkhas-grub rje and Bu-ston to be more correct than others. He died at the age of 73. The following are his principal works:

Kun-gsal melon (on arithmetic, astronomy and astrology) a large volume written in very small characters.

Bdud rtsi thig-pa (drops of nectar) on medicine.

Lag-len (practice) of medicine, &c.

Sel-dkar meloñ (crystal mirror) on diagnosis.

Gso-dpyad.

Sky-gsrun thug-rtan dkyil thig tshad (structure, proportion and form of images, diagrams, symbols, &c.).

Sgra, Sñan-nag and sslos gar (rhotoric and poetry and drama).

Rgya-Bod and Hor Chhos hbyun (Ljon-bssan), i. e. the history of Buddhism (rise and progress of Buddhism) in India, China and Tibet. This work was completed in the year 1747 A. D., and also contains the "Rehumig (chronological table).

A work on Buddhist charms to enable men to work miracles.

Hdsamglin Spyi bár J (general account of the world) on the geography of the world.

1041

A work on Yoga.

A work on fortune telling and divination.

A work on meditation.

REHUMIG.*

(Translation.)
CYCLE†—I

The twelfth Kulika emperor, called Súrya, ascended the

A. D. 1026.

throne of Sambhala. Dge bses Potova Rinchlen gsal was born. Gyi-jo Lo-cháva translated the Kála-chakra system of astronomy for introducing it into Tibet. The year of the Buddha's Nirvana being fixed in the year called Fire-hare, this year (1026) was the 361st year of the period of Adhi-drishti. According to the calculation of those who place the Buddha's death in the year Iron-dragon, this was the 408th year of Adhi- A. D. 1026 drishti. According to some writers the work, called Dus-hkhor hgrel-chhen, was translated in Tibet by Gyi-jo Lochava in the 1027 Se-ston Kun-rigs, the spiritual teacher of Ma-chig Sha-ma Icham Srin and pupil of hBrog-mi Lo-chava, was born. 1028 Phu chhuñ-va gshon-rgyan was born. 1030 Rinchhen sñin-po of Stod lun, the pupil of Spyan-sna-va 1031 Spyan Sna-tshul khrims hbar was born. 1032 Hkhon Dkon-mchhog rgyal-po of Sa-skya was born. 1033 La-chhen (bLama Chhenpo) DGongs-pa rab qsal proceeded to the mansion of purity (died). 1034 Rnog Chhos-rDorje, the disciple of Marpa, was born. 1035 Jovo rje Dpal Idan Atisa arrived at MNah rigs. 1038

Rje-btsun Milaras-pa was born. Bari Lo-cháva Rinchhengrags was born. The Shalu monastery was founded. Náro Pan-chhen died. Ye-ées hbar of Snehu ssur, the eldest son of Dgonpa-pa

Ye-ses boar of Snehu ssur, the eldest son of Dgonpa-pa was born. Maar sgom brtson bgrus hbar of Smyug rum, who was the pupil of Spyan sna-pa, was born. Atisa visited great Tibet (according to some) in the 61st year of his age.

^{*} The italics in the proper nouns are not pronounced.

[†] The Vrihaspati Cycle of 60 years was introduced into Tibet by the Indian Pandit Chandra Nátha in the year 1025 A. D.

The monastery of Myu-gu lu $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ was founded by H brogmi Lo-	A. D.
châva.	1042
Machig Sha-ma's husband was born. Rma-Lo-cháva Chhos	
hbar of La-stod was born. HBrom met Atísa in the 41st year	
of his age.	1043
Hbrin Ston of Rgyal was born. Ssla-va grags-pa, the son	
of Lche dal sganpa, was born.	
Chhag-khri mchhog met Atisa.	1044
Rgya-hdul hdsin dwan phyug tshul-khrims hbar was born.	
Atisa miraculously witnessed the religious service performed by	
Maitreya (Byams-pa) and Manjuśri (Hjam-dwyańs) at sNe-thań.	1046
Mu-dra-va founded the monastery of E-dgon.	1048
Gñal chhos hbar was born. Hbrom made his first pre-	10.0
sents to Atisa.	1049
Atísa wrote his work on the Buddhist chronology.	1050
Machig Lab sgron of Kham-pa Lun was born. Machig yumo	100
became the pupil of Sba-sgom ye-byan and others of the later	
R ñi $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ -ma school. Dharma Bodhi was born.	1051
Sdin-po snubs Chhos-hbar was born.	1052
Rdorje Senge of Glan-ri than (Potova's disciple) was born.	1002
Lama gshen, the pupil of Ronssom Locháva Chhos-bssan,	
was born.	1053
Atísa died at the age of 73.	2000
Pá-tsha-va Locháva called Ñima Grags-pa was born. Rma-	
sgom chhos gées of the Shi-byed school was born. Shin ston	
chhos hbar was born. The celebrated Machig Lab-Sgron was	
born. Rinchhen bssanpo the great Locháva died.	1054
Trepo mchhogs, the spiritual teacher and Mkhanpo of Rhog	
legs, was born.	1055
Sher-hod of Shang Kama was born. The monastery of	
Rva s gre $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ was founded by H brom ston-pa.	1056
Chhag-khri-mchhog, one of the disciples of Atísa, died.	1057
Rhog Blo-ldan ses-rab was born. Dol bu ser-rgya-ma	
was born. Rog-dmar-shur was born.	1058
Rma-bya Rna-ra-va of rGyal was born. Sna-nam rdor	
dwan of Shan died.	1059
Machig receives spiritual instruction from A-ston.	1060
Skhor-chhun of Phyag chhen school was born. Ma-chig	,
Shama, the pupil of Se-ston Kun-rigs, was born. So-chhun Dge-	
hdun hbar of the Shi-byed school was born. Kun-dgah, the	
second of the Shi-byed school, was born.	1061
Se-mkhar-chhunpa (of Lam-hbras-pa) held the monastery of	
Lûnogm-khar-chun. Hbrom ston died.	1063
-	

[No. 2,

1065

1076

1077

1078

1079

1080

1082

Rnal-hbyor Ame held the headship of Rwa-Sgren. Rgy-agar Phyag-na visited the Ye-ran monastery in Nepal.

Padma byan-chhub of Sa-po sgan, the pupil of Phuchhun-pa, was born. Byan-chhub yeses of Rgyal-tsha was born. IIJam-Dpal and Skyi khun-pa Hab-jo, the two disciples of the Grub thob Yumo, were born. Hdsad Dharma met

Pha-dampa Sans rgyas. Lche-Sgom Nan-pa unearthed the concealed scriptural treasures of Lche-b tsun, the Rnin-ma Lama. 1066 Chhos kyi Rgyal-po of Hkhon-phu, the brother of Machig 1068

Sama, was born. , Sarava Yontan Grags, the disciple of Potova, was born. 1069

Hkhon founded the grand monastery of Sa-skya, and Rông legs ses founded the monastery of Gsan-phu, Rma-Chhos ses met Pha-dampa. 1072 Sgro-phug-pa, the pupil of Ssur-chhun and disciple of Dkah-bshi, was born. Hbrog-mi Locháva died. Ser-grags, the Rhin-ma Lama of Ssur-chhun, died. 1073 Sprul-sku Gshon-hod of Bya-yul, the disciple of Spyan-

1074 Khu-chhen died. The great religious institution of king Mnah bdag rtse sde was founded. Rdog Locháva visited Kaśmír. 1075 Gtsañ-pa Rin-po chhe, the disciple of Bya-yul-pa, was born. Nam kha rdorje was born Pá-tshab sgompa, the disciple of Kun dgah of the Shi byed school was born. Milaraspa pro-

sna, was born. Ses-rab Brtson of Khu was born. Brtson gyun

ceeded to study under Marpa Locháva. Hbrom-ston of Rgyal was born. Sgro-chhos brtson, the pupil of Sgom of the Shi-byed-pa school, was born. After the death of Ames, Mdsod dgon-pa became the abbot

of Rva-sgren. Blo-gros grags Lha-rje sgampopa of Dwag-po was born.

Rgya-hdul hdsin practised the ascetic vows of vinaya at

the monastery of Dgah-va-gdon.

The foundation of the monastery of Gra-than was laid by

Gra-pa, mîon ses chan (a certain monk who was possessed of foreknowledge). Potova Rinchhen gsal died, after discharging the functions of abbot at the religious seat of Rwa-sgren for one year or

(according to some) three years. Mdsod dgon-pa died. 1081

Henceforth for many years there prevailed a religious

Byan chhub dge-mdses, the pupil of Sne-hu ssur-pa, was born. Ras chhun rdor grags, the pupil of Milaras-pa, was	
born. Has chhuñ rdor grags, the pupil of Milaras-pa, was born at Guñ thañ. Milaras-pa performed asceticism to attain	A. D.
sainthood.	1083
S'ami sgom-pa Smon lam hbar, the pupil of So-chhun-pa,	1000
was born.	1084
1100 00	1001
CYCLE—II.	
S'arava attended on Potova as his pupil.	1086
Ma Locháva Chhos-hbar died of poison.	1088
Dgyer Sgom chhenpo Gshon-grags, the pupil of Bya-Yul,	
was born. Rnog-mdo-sde, the spiritual son of Rnog Chhos-	
rdor, was born. Tshul-hphags-dan lapa, the Buddhist scholar,	
was born. Rog ses-rab blama, the spiritual successor of Rgyal-	
wa rten-nas, was born. Gra-pa mîon ses-rab chan died.	1089
Brtson hgrus hbar, known as Bya-hdul-va hdsin-pa (the	
Vinayic priest of Bya), was born.	1090
Sa-chhen Kun sũin, the son of Sa-skya Dkon rgyal, recog-	
nised as the 9th spiritual emanation of Chancassig, was born.	
The saint Pha-dampa visited Tibet. Rûog Lo-cháva returned	
to Tibet.	1091
The Glan-than monastery was founded by Glan-ri-than-pa.	
Milaraspa, after the completion of his ascetical propitiations	
(attainment of sainthood), proceeded towards Tesi &c.	1092
Nin phug-pa Chhos grags, the saint of Shan who was the	
pupil of Byan-soms Ssla rgyan, was born.	
The R ñi $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ Lama, called R gya-nag-pa (the Chinese), was born.	
Ras-chhuñ-pa met Milaras-pa.	1093
The monastery of Lodgon was founded. \cdot	1094
Tshul-khrims dpal, the red cap Lama, was born.	1095
Bkra sis rdorje of Shan Ston, a Rnin-ma Lama, was born.	
Marpa Chhos blo was born.	1096
Hod sser sen-ge, the disciple of Bya-yul-pa, was born. Dva	
gs-po Chhos gyun, the chief spiritual son of Sgampo, was born.	1099
Ye-rdor of Hehhad kha, the disciple of Sarava, was born.	****
Pha-dampa visited China.	1100
On the demise of Hkhon-ston Dkon-mChhog rgyal-po,	•
Bari Locháva ascended the throne of Sa-skya.	
On the death of Glan-tshul byan, IIbrin ston succeeded to	
the headship of RGyal (became abbot of Rgyal).	1101
Rhog Chhos rdor died.	1101
Stab ka-va Darma grags, the disciple of Sarava, was born.	

S. C. Dás—Life of Sum-pa Khan-pa.	
Khyun tshan Thod-dmar-va was born. Stod lun-pa for the monastery of Btson-gro dGonpa. Spyan sna tshul hba at Snug-rum. Sgrol Sgom, the pupil of Sgampo, was bor Sgam-po-va received the final vows of monkhood. Potova rinchhen gsal died.	r died n.
Gtum-ston Blo gros grags, the pupil of Sarava, was Phu-Chhûñ-va died at the monastery of Poto dgon. Sten-pa Lo cháva who brought the Kasmírian Pand	
ańka Deva was born.	_
Chhos-señ of Phya-pa was born. After the death of Locháva Shañ-Tshe sriñ Chhos kyi blama held the headsl	Rnog
Gsan-phu for thirty-two years. A succession of twelve l	
occupied a period of 159 years. Snug-rum-pa chhenpo die	d.
Rdorje rgysl-po (Phagmo-grub-pa) was born. Karma	dus
gsum mkhyanpa was born. Sgampo served Milaras-pa a pupil.	s his
Kun-snin ascended the throne of Sa-skya. The Gva	-gor-
dgon-pa was founded by Gîal Chhos hbar. At Chhu-bar-Milaras-pa triumphed over a troop of den Sgampo performed ascetic propitiations at Hol kha.	
Chhos hbar died.	
The final visit of Pha-dampa to Tibet. The incarnat of Las chhen Kun-rgyal, &c., founded monasteries in Bya-y Khyun tshan yeses blama, the disciple of Ras chhun, born. Jo-tshul Ses, the spiritual son of Rnog mdo-sde, born. Kham lunpa Chhenpo, the pupil of Hgrom, died. Sgompa tshul Khrims of Dvag-po was born. Rgyr ye-grags dmar-va was born. Stod Lunpa Chhenpo died. ston Kun rigs died.	ul. was was al-va
HChhus dar brtson, the disciple of Sgro (of the Shi school), was born. Some of the Gter-ston of the Sñin ma	
discovered hidden books. Pha dampa died.	
Ma Khro-phu Rgyal-tsha, the disciple of Panchhen Sá śrí, Rnog-mdo-sde and Phag-gru, &c., was born. Yeses hba	
Snehu Ssur died. Dgyer sgom founded the monastery of Rgya-ma Rin-ch	hen
sgan-rnin. *	
Hbrin-ston died. Skam ye-rgyan of the Shi-byed sel died.	iool
Thog-med grags, the spiritual son of Rnog mdo-sde, born. Rma Rna-ra-va became the abbot of Rgyal. age of Samádhi commenced.	was The

Chhos rgyan of Se-skyilbu, the disciple of Hchhad ká, was	
born.	
The monastery of Sgampoi dgonpa was founded by Dvags	
po Lha-rJe.	1120
Thogs med Hod of Rhog was born. Brtson-grags of Shah	
was born. When Skor-chhun died, his body received animation.	
The resurrection was due to the Indian saint Nirupa having entered it in a miraculous manner.	1121
Ssla-hod, the spiritual son of IIkhon-phu-pa, was born,	1121
Gynbrag pa was born. Gshon-brtson of Glan-lun, the pupil of	
Bya-yul Locháva, was born. Rje Milaras chhon died.	
Rdo-rje senge of Glan than died.	1122
Jo II bum, the father of Rta-ston Jo-ye and Jo-bsod of the	
Rîiî-ma school, was born The later Kun-dgah of the Shi-byed	
school died.	1123
Karma dus mkhyen was admited into the order of monk-	
hood by Tre-po mehhog blama. Achârya Abhayakara died.	1142
Mal Kapa chan, the disciple of Sama, was born. Lehe-	
ston yon-tan gssuñs of Se-brag was born.	1125
The Kaśmirian Pandit S'ákya S'ri was born.	
Hjig-rten Grags-pa Rgya-va rten, who became the dis-	
ciple of Pá-tshab sgom-pa of the Shi-byed school, was born.	
Hod hjo gshon-nu yontan was born.	
The 13th Rigs-Idan (Kulika), called Sna-tshogs gssugs	
(Viśva-rúpa), a cended the throne of Sambhala.	1126
Dge-bées ylan of Rgyal was born. Padma-rdorje Ras-pa	
(he with locks) of the <i>H</i> brug-pa school, was born.	1100
Karma dus mkhyen visited Dvus. So-chhun dge hbar died. Sbal-te Dgra bchom-pa, the saint of Balti, was born. Jo	1127
hod gchun, also called Rnog jo va-son, was born. Rma Narava	
died.	1128
S'es rab Byan-chhub, also called Dvags po Sgom-Chhun,	1120
of Dyag ³ -po was born.	
Rgyal tsha Byan yeses became abbot of Rgyal qdansa.	
	1129
Karmapa Ses-rab hod of Shan died. Rgya-hdul hdsin-pa	
died. Sa-vo-sgan-pa died. Ses rab rgyam of Dol died.	1130
The red cap Lama Tshul khrims hbar died.	1131
Nam-mkhah hod of the red cap school, who was the re-embo-	
diment of Shva rmar Tshul dpal, was born.	
Dus mkhyon received the final vows of monkhood from	
Mal hdul hdsiu.	1132

Mîah bdag Nanral, king of Tibet (recognised as the 11th incarnation of Chanrassig), was born. 1134 Hod sser Senge founded the monastery of Khrom Kam 1136

[No. 2,

1133

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dgonpa at Khrom Gsher. Sans rgyas dpon-pa, the younger brother of Rgyama dgyer sgom, was born. Shon-hbyun was born. Rog bkra grags, the spiritual son of Rog Ses-rab blama, was born. Gshon-hod of

Bya-yul died. Dus Mkhyen visited Sgampo at Dvagpo. Khyun-po died. Rgyal-tshab Byan yeśes-died. ' H brom ston of Rgyal became abbot of Rgyal qdansa.

Sarava vontan grags died. Bsod nams rtse-mo, the spiritual son of Sa-skya Kun-snin, was born.

Bkraśis dpal of Than-pa chhenpo in Stag-lun was born. Hjig-rten gsum mgon Rin bssan the governor of Hbri-gon, was born. After the death of H brom-ston of Rgyal, the abbotship of Gdansa remained vacant for nine years. Ar spent his

Dgyer sgom tshul sen, the disciple of Mal Ka-va chan and

Phag-gru, was born. Gsan ston spyipa chaspa, one of the Pan chhen of Sa-skya,

Hkhonphu-pa, the brother of Ma chig Sama, died. Rnog jo bsod died.

Rgyal Chharmo, the spiritual son of Rnog thog med, was

born. Rhogjo Hod died.

rgyal-tsha, was born.

CYCLE III.

summer recess at Gdansa. Khu-ser brtson died.

Rjo-btsun Grags-pa rgyal-mtshan, the spiritual son of Sa-

chhen, was born. Kun-ldan Ras Chhun, the younger brother of Khro-phu

Rîiñ-ma Rgya-nag-pa, the disciple of Sgro-phug Rîiñ-ma Lama, died. Shig-pa bdud rtsi, the disciple of Rñin ma Se-brag, was

born. Machig Sama died. 1148 Rog Ses-rab blama, the religious and ministerial successor of Rgyal-va-rten-na, was born.

Dvagpo sgom-tshul held the abbotship of Sgampo. Dpalchhen Hodpo chhe, the son of Sa-chhen, was born.

•	
I magnito grub-par interpretated infe-ognitipo van	1150
R dor-se \hat{n} , the younger brother of R \hat{n} og Chharmo, was born.	
Sgro chhos brtson died.	1151
Chhag Locháva, also called Dgra-bchom Rtehu rava, the	
disciple of Sten-pa Locháva, was born.	
Gro-bdud-rtsi grags of Snarthan was born. Gtum-ston	
founded the monastery of sNar than. Dag-pa ses tsul Pha-	
gs-paof Nan lam became abbot of Rgyal gdansa.	
Dvagspo Sgampo-va died.	1152
Rdorje tshul khrims of Hbri gon was born. Dvags-po Sgom-	
tshul founded the monastery of Mtshur-lha luñ, at Stod-luñ.	1153
Dus mkhan pa founded the Karmapa monastery of Gshu	•
mtshur Lha lun at Gshuhi gru bshi Lha lun.	1154
Thogs med grags of Rnog died.	1155
Kun dgah rdorje, the spiritual son of Rnog jo-tshul, was	
born.	1156
Dvan-phyug byan rin of Lha lun, who was the disciple of	
Se-spyil-pa, was born. Bssan mo, the spiritual son of Sans rgyas	
dpon ston, was born.	
. Nin hbum, the son of Rnin-ma shan-ston, was born. Pá.	
tshab sgompa died. Sa-chhen Kun-sñiñ died. Rîog jo-tshul	
died. Phag gru-pa founded the monastery of Gdansa mthil.	1157
Bood name rtse me became the grand hierarch of Sa-skya.	
Dge-bścs Nanlampa died. Dus mkyen founded the monastery	
of Mtshur-phu.	1158
Sans-rgyas $sgompa$ $rdor$ $gshon$ of $Bya-yul$ was born. $Dge-$	
bšes lehañ rib was born.	
Rma Locháva and Yan dnenpa, the immanations of Machig	
S'ama, were born.	1159
Veses rdorie (also called qtsan-pa Rgya ras pa), the dis-	
ciple of Hbrug-pa glin raspa, was born. Gtsan rinpochhe Nam	
rdorie died Ras-chhunpa died.	1160
Chhingis Khán, the conqueror, who turned the wheel of	
might, was born.	
Skor Nirúpa tava died.	1161
Rta ston jo veses, the Rnin ma Lama, was born.	1162
Gños Rgyal-va lha nanva Sans rin, the disciple of Skyob-pa,	•
was horn.	
Due mkhwen founded the monastery of lower Kam-po gnas	
nan The monastery of Hchhad-ka gsarma was founded by Se-	
skyil-na Khynn-tshan Thod dmar became abbot of Rgyal-	}
gd ansa. Hab jo Sras, the disciple of Yumo, died.	1163
Outside Acres Acre	

2. c. = 32 = 250 of 2000 pw 12000 po.	LIVO.
Bya-hchhañ-kha-pa founded the monastery of Malgro Bya-	
hehhan kha. The two Glinras-pa of Staglun interviewed Phag-	
gru.	
S'er-hod, the son of Rog bkra-grags, was born.	1164
Gtum-ston died at Chhos-lun. Rdor-ston. Sor grags be-	
came abbot of SNarthan.	
Rnog mdo-sde died. Ser hod, the spiritual son of Rog-bkra	
Grags, was born.	1165
Mîahri dge-mdsas died. Shan ston bkra rdor, the Rniñ-	
ma lama, died. The abbot of Hbri-gon became the disciple of	
Phag-gru.	1166
Jo-bsod of Dvus, who was the younger brother of Rta-ston-	
jo-ye (R ĥiĥ-ma Lama), was born. H dse d Dharmabodhi died.	
	1167
Gyam bssan Chhos smon lam, the disciple of Ssva-ra-va Skal-ye, the son of Phag-gru, was born.	
The Kashmírian Pandit Sakya Srí took the final vows of	
monkhood. The monastery of $Hdod$ span plug was founded	
by Dus-mkhyen. The monastery of Skyor lun was founded by	
Spal-te. Dvagspo sgom-tshul died, after which the abbotship	
remained vacant for two years. Phyá-pa Chhos sen died.	1168
Bsod rdor of Shom-brag, the disciple of Karma sans rgyas	1100
Ras-chlien, was born.	
Rgyal died at Phag-gru, and the abbotship of Sdan-sa re-	
mained vacant for six years.	
Khrom gser died at Kam kam.	1169
Rin-chhen Sesrab, the younger brother of Rog Serab	
hod, was born.	
S'ami smon lam hbar died.	1170
Grags rgyan-pa ascended the throne of the Sa-skya hierarchy.	
Ser byan was appointed to the abbotship left vacant by Sgampo.	1171
Khro-phu Lo-cháva Tshul-ses byams dpal, who was a	
nephew of the Khro-phu Rgyal tsha brothers, was born. Rog	
S'esrab lama died.	1172
Darma grags pa of Stabs-ka died. Jo-hbum, the Râiâma	2250
lama, died. Rinchhen Hod, the disciple of Phag-gru, was born. The	1173
Rinchhen Hod, the disciple of Phag-gru, was born. The monastery of Tshal was founded. Bya-hehhad kapa died.	1174
Chhos rje Sgan-pa was born. Khyan tshan yes'es Lama	1174
died.	1175
DPon ras dar sen of the middle Hbrug school was born.	1110
The Skyob-pa (hierarch) of Hbri-gon received the final vows of	

len-pa died.

1000.]	
monkhood. Shan Lo-cháva grub-dpal died. Dvags-po Chhos	1150
gyuñ died.	1176
Sans rgyas sgompa of Snarthañ was born. Ye-grags d mar became the abbot of R gyal- g dan sa.	1178
Gshon rdor of Mgar dampa Chhos sdin, the disciple of Sky-	
ob-pa, was born. Hoom dgon S'esrab dpal, the disciple of Stag	
lun-pa, was born. The monastery of Stag lun dgon was found-	
ed by Lama Stag luñ-thañ-pa.	1179
Sa-skya Panchhen, the son of Dpal-hod sros, was born.	
Bsod rgyan of Ko-brag was born.	
The monastery of Rgyama Rin sgan was rebuilt by Sans	
rgyas dvon-ston.	1190
Rsod nams rtshe of Sa-skya died. Lha-btsun ssla Hod of	
Hkhon-phu died.	
Rñog Chharmo died.	1181
Ssans tsha bsod rgyan, the younger brother of Sa-skya Pan-	
chhen Kun dgah rgyal-mtshan, was born.	1183
The monastery of Karma lha sden was founded by Dus	
mkhyen-pa.	
Rdo ston ser grags died at Snarthan and was succeeded by	
Shan btsum rdor hod who was born in the year iron-horse.	1184
The venerable Hgro-vahi mgonpo dvan phyng Hod Lha-	
lun dpon sras was born.	
Grags rgyal, of Kharagpa, who was the spiritual son of	
Rgod-tshañ the Hbrug-pa Lama and disciple of Bhuriba, was	
born. Nin phug-pa died. Rog Bkra sis grags died.	1185
Dvon Ser hbyun, the disciple of Skyob-pa, was born.	
Bloras dvan brtson of lower Hbrug, who was the disciple of	
Glsan rgyara, was born. The monastery of Tshal gun than was	
founded by Lama Shan brtson grags. The image Lhachhen	
was constructed. Rgyal-va yeses died at Grags dmar.	1186
Hbrug-pa gliñ ras pa Padma-dorje was born.	1187
Bsam glin-pa, the disciple of Gan-ba and spiritual son of	
Karma dus mkhyen, was born.	
Rgos tshan mgon-po rdorje of upper Hbrug, who became	
the disciple of Rgya ras, was born.	4
Dge-bées Glan rgyal became the head of Gdan-sa (chief	
seat of the hierarchy).	
The monastery of Mtshur-phu was founded by Dus	
mkhyen-pa.	
Hor Chhin-gis became king of the Mongols. Se-spyil	

1190

1191

1192

1195 1196

1199

1200

1201

The king of upper Mo-rtse Rgyal-po presented the Lord Buddha's image with a golden crown.

Hchhad-ka monastery was governed by Lhalun dvan phyug of Se-spyil.

King Chhingis conquered Man-churia. Sten-ba Lo-chava (Tshul-khrim hhyun gnas) died.

(Tshul-khrim hhyun gnas) died.

Ssim rinpochhe of Bya-yul (Sans-rgyas Ston-pa grags) was born. Rin mgon sku yal-va of Stag lun dvon kar was born.

Glan died and was succeeded by Dge-bses dri-hdul at Rgyal Gdansa.

King Chhin gis conquered Solon country. Mchhus dar brtson died.

Skysa ston byañ rin pochhe held the abbotship of Rgyab-

Skysa-ston byañ rin pochhe held the abbotship of Rgyabgdansa. Lama shañ died at Guñ thañ. Karma Dus gsum mkhyen-pa died. Gshon-un brtson hgrus of Glañ-luñ died. Dyus-pa died.

Henceforth Chhin gis became emperor of China. Snasthan Shan btsun-died and was succeeded by Groms chhe-be who was born in the year water-bird.

Bya-skyun-pa (mdo-sde mgon of Phorog), who was kobrag-

paś disciple, was born. Khro-Lo-cháva visited Nepal. Chhingis conquered Tartary. Khro-phu rgyal-tsha died. Yon-tangssan̂s (Rnin̂ma Lama) died.

1194

Jo hbar, the son of Nima-hbum (Rnin̂-ma Lama), was

rn. Chingis subdued the Danmag.

The latter Chhos rje dpal Chhag was born.

Skyob-pa and Stag lin-ba built temples at Phag-gru.

Khro Lo-chava invited Mitrapa to Tibet who after a staying there for 18 months returned to India. Chhin-gis conquered Kheran. Jobsod (Rnin-ma Lama) died.

Kherañ. Jobsod (Rñiñ-ma Lama) died. 1197
Dvags-po grol-sgom died. Shva-dmar nam hod died.
Rñiñ-ma-pa Shig-po died. 1198

Sgam-po sîi sgam-chhen-po was born. Bkra-Grags, the re-embodiment of the red-cap Lama called Nam-hod who was a disciple of Dus mkhyen, was born. Gshon-señ of the middle Hbrug-pa school was born. Khro-Lo-cháva brought Buddha Srí to Tibet. Chhiñ-gis subjugated Nahimanpa Ta-ge.

Dge-bshes lchan-ri held the abbotship of Rgyal gdan-sa. Sans rgyas sgom-pa protected the Lo-chava of Bya yul. Gssi brjid Grags, the spiritual son of Rnog kun rdor was born.

Spyan sûa Rinchhen Ldan, the disciple of Ko-brag-pa and Yuû dgonpa, was born. Chhiû-gis conquered the whole of Hor.

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Rgva Lo-cháva (Rnam rgyal Rdorje) of Ron was born. Phag-gru Thog-rdug pa was born. Sans rgyas yar byon Ses rab blama of Stag lun was born. Sans rgyas ras pa Rinchhen smonlam, the disciple of Shi-	
,	1202
Karma Bakshi Chhos hdsin, the disciple of Sbom-brag-pa and pupil of Karma Ras chhen, was born. Khro Lo-cháva brought the Kashmírian Pandit Sakya Srí to Tibet.	
Chhin-gis subjugated Harilig. Dgyer-tshul Sen died. Rgyal-po dgah, the younger brother of Rnog Gssi-brjid, was born. The monastery of Bde-va-chan at Sne-than was founded by Rgya-hchhin rupa, the disciple of Gnal shan.	1203
His nephews, Sans rgyas dpal and others, managed the	
monastery after his death.	1204
The monastery of Gyam bssañ dgon-pa was founded by Chhos Smon lam of Gyam bssañ.	1205
Chhingis visited Tibot and subjugated all its provinces	
with the exception of Mi-nag.	
CYCLE IV.	
Ssvara-yese \hat{n} , the pupil of Phag-gru, died. Spy \hat{n} n-sna grags h byu \hat{n} became the abbot of Phag-gru G dansa which dignity he held for twenty-seven years. Saskya	1206
Pandita received the final vows of monkhood from Sakya Sri	1207
Pandita. Dvon dkarva occupied the abbotship vacated in con-	1201
sequence of the death of Stag lun than-pa. Regya-ma Sans regyas d von ston died.	1209
Tilla r dor grags, the younger brother of H bri-gon-pa, was born.	
Dven-po Dar sen became abbot of Hbrug Ralun after the death of Gtsan-pa rgya-ras. Mal-ka-pa-chan died. Hguru Chhos dvan, a Rnin-ma gter-ston was born. Khro-	1210
Locháva constructed a gigantic image of Maitreya, eighty cubits high; which he also consecrated. Rgyalva, the eldest spiritual son of Hbrug-pa Rgod-tshan-	1211
pa, Yan dgon-pa and Rgyal-mtshan dpal were born.	
The Kaskmírian Pandita Sakya Srí returned to Kashmír.	1212
The monastery of Glanthan Chhos-sde was founded. Gshon-nu yon-tan of Hod jo-va died. Kninma Nima	1412
hbum died.	

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1223

The pupil of Hjam-gser called Chhos Sku-hod sser, who became the disciple of Semo-chhe the professor of Dus hkhor, was born. Khublai (emperor Se-chhen) Khán of Hor was born. SPal-te Dgra-bchom died.

1214 Shva-dmar-tshul dpal, the disciple of Karma Bakshi, was born. Sne-mdo thams chad mkhyen-pa, the eldest son of Smar-

senge, was born. Chhag dgra-behom died. Grags rgyan of Sa-sky died. 1215 Rdorje tshul-khrims became the heirarch of Hbri-gon. Skyob-pa Hjig-rten mgon-po died.

· Khro-phu kun-ldan-ras-pa died. Yan-dven-pa died. Rgyal-va Iten nas-pa died. 1216 Rin-chhen rdorje his younger brother, who was the 12th

(in succession), was born. Dge-bścs tchań riba died. Sgampo hdul hdsin-pa died. Glan ston sesrab Scn became abbot of Rgyal-gdan sa. Rnog rdorsen died. Rdorje tshul Khrims of Mbri-gon died.

Dvon S'esrab byuñ became hierarch of Hbri-goñ'. Buddhism was first introduced in Hor (Mongolia). Chhin-gis an-

nexed Sar-tha-gva-chhen. 1221Rdorje yeses (Chhos go ba of Hbri-guñ) was born. Hkhru? Shig Darma senge, the disciple of Rog-mchhad gsun, was born. 1122 Dyon dkar commenced building the grand hall of wor-

ship at Stag lun. Gños Lha nañ-va died.

Bde-legs rgyal-mtshan of Neran, who became the pupil of Orgyan Rinchlien dpal, was born. Shan ston htshem-pa be-

came abbot of Rgyal-va gdansa. The monastery of Dge-hdun sgan was founded by the two

disciples of Sakya Srí Pandita named Byan and Rdor. They also founded the monastery of Sñemo tshag-mig.

Sákya senge founded the monastery of Namrin in Byan

(north) after which he died. S'ákya S'rí died in Kashmír. 1224 Rin Sen of Thog-kha of Hbrigon was born. The fourteenth Kulika ascended the throne of Sambhala. gis subjugated Miñag in Tibet, after which he died.

1225 Ogoti, the son of Chhingis, who was born in the year fire-1226

sheep, assumed the scoptre of the Mongol-China kingdom. Sgampo Sñepa jo sras was born. Sans rgyas sgom-pa died. 1227

Orgyan Senge rinchhen d pal, the pupil of R go d tshan-pa of S to d H brug, was born.	
Rta-ston jo-ye, the Rñin-ma Lama, died.	1228
Bkraśis blama of S tag lu n̂ was born. Jo- h bed, the R âi âma Lama, died.	1229
Rin-señ of Kham luñ in Bya-yul was born Sans rgya jo-vo dvañ phyug gshon-nu of Bya-yul was born. Gromo-chhe of SNar thañ died. Lha-luñ dvañ phyug died. Chhos smon lam of Gyam-bssañ died. Rog S'esrab blama	1230
was born. Ogoti died. Guru Chhos dvan recovered concealed religious books from the rock of Gnam-skas brag. Sans ston tshul mgon of the Sans-pa school was born. Serbyun died at Hbrigon. Gotan, who was born in the fire-thyer	1231
year, ascended the throne of Hor. Rhog kun-rdor and Rtogs ldan bssan died.	1232
Phags-pa, the son of Sa-skya Ssans-tsha, was born. Senge-sgra, the son of Rnog rgyal-dgah, was born.	1283
Dvon dkar skuyalma of Stag lun died. Sgam-po Sñi sgom-ehhen died.	1234
Dar Sen, the disciple of Rgya ras of Gtsan, died at IIbrug ra lun. Gshon-san succeeded him. Rin-rgyan and Ye-hbyun, the sons of Ssans tsha of Sa-	1235
skya, were born. Phyagna rdorje, the younger brother of Hphags-pa of Saskya, was born.	1236
Ssaâs tsha Bsod rgyan of Saskya died. Grags-pa yeśo's of Phag-gru was born. Grags bsod (IItsham behad-pa) of IIbri gun was born. The Mongol chief Chhigya dorta, with his troops overrun Dvu (U) and Utsan, and killed So-ston and five hundred monks of Sa-skya, after	1237
which he burnt Rva-sgren and Rgyal-khan monasteries. Chhos kyi blama died at Snarthan. Dvon-Ser-hbyun	1238
died. Rin bssan, the younger brother of Rnog Sen ge sgra, was born. Melon Rdorje, the pupil of Rninma jo hbad and disciple of Sen-ge rg ab-pa, was born. Jonan kun-span Thugs brtson-	1239
hgrus rje, the pupil of Chhos sku hod sser, was born. Hphags-pa and Phyagna, the two nephews of Sa-skya Pandita, proceeded to Mongolia. Rog-ser hod died. Hbom	1211
dgon-pa of Stag lun died.	1242
Rog-shigpo Rin-chhen Sesrab died. н	1243

Chhos kyi rdorje, the younger brother of Rînog Rin-chhen	
bssan-po, was born.	
Sa-skya Pandita arrived at Lan-ju (Lan-chau).	1244
Sa-śkya Pandita interviewed the Mongol king Gotan.	
She-mdo smar sen died.	1245
Sa-skya Pandita's saintly powers were tested. Having	2010
found him to be a sage and saint, the king imbibed faith in him.	1246
King Gotan sent a proclamation to Tibet making a pre-	
sent of the provinces of U and Tsan to the Sa-skya hierarch.	
Gya-pa gans-pa, the disciple of Dus-mkhyen, died. Sbom-	1047
grags-pa died.	1247
Grags rin gnis mchhod-pa of Phag-gru was born. Se-	
Spyil Kha-va yeses of Lhobrag was born.	
Shan d'Ron dpal was born. Lo-cháva Ras died at the capital	1040
of the Hbrug-pa hierarchy. Sans-Sgom of Sñas than died.	1248
Sans rgyas dvon grags dpal of Stag lun was born. Ses-	
rab Sen-ge of Ron, the spiritual son of Rgva Lo-cháva, was	1040
born. Nima senge of middle Hbrug was born.	1249
MChhim nam grags became abbot of Snarthan. Sa-skya	1040
Pandita died at Sprul-sde in Mongolia. King Gotan died.	1249
Mun-khe, who was born in the year fire-hare, ascended the throne of Mongol-China. The Mongolian army suppressed	
Mon mkhar mgonpo gdon in Tibet.	1050
HPhags-pa of Sa-skya became prince Khublai's spiritual	1250
guide. The Saskya-pa hierarch took possession of the	
thirteen provinces of Tibet, called Khri-skor behu-gsum.	1251
The Mongolian king went at the head of an army to	1251
Gara ljan yul and returned to his capital in the following year.	1252
Grags sen of Mun-mebrag kha-wa, the pupil of Jonan kun	1202
span, was born.	1253
Spyan sna grags hbyuñ died.	1254
Bakshi became the spiritual guide of the Mongol king Mun-	1254
khe. Ssem grags sen of Bya-yul died. Guru Chhos dvan	
uncarthed the six Rînin ma scriptures.	1255
Sans-rgyas dpal bssan (Stag lun dvon-po) was born. Phorog	1200
mdo-sde died.	1050
Senge rinchhen of Spahi-skya and of the middle Hbrug-	1256
pa school was born.	
pa senori was born. Kun dgah bssaâ-po of Sâe-mdo, an incarnation of Rgod-	
tshafis-pa, was born.	
Rgyal-va yan dgonpa, the son of Thams chas mkhyenpa,	
died. Rgod tshan mgon rdor of Stod H brug died.	1257
uteu. Mgow contain mgon ruox or brow mornig uteu.	1401

Due-legs regati musikin founded the monastery of Saan saan	
neran. Lha hgro mgon dvan phyug died.	
Mun-khe, the Mongol king, died.	1258
Yon rgyam, the pupil of Jonan kun span, was born. Karma	
Bsam-glin Rinchhen died.	1259
Rgyal mtshan hbum of Hjag, who became a leader of	
the Sanspa school, was born.	
Karma Bakshi, during the years fire-serpent, iron-monkey	
and iron-bird, made miraculous religious demonstrations. Bsod rgyan of Go-brag died.	1000
Bdag-chhen bssañpo dpal, the son of Sa-skya Ye-hbyun,	1260
was born.	
Sakya bssanpo, well-known by his other name Stag lun	
Lo-cháva, was born.	1261
Ssur-phu-va, the pupil of Spyan-sna rin ldan, was born.	1201
The great shrine of Mtshur-phu was built by Bakshi Ne	
ldan sgom.	1262
Sans rgyas ston tshul Khrims Sengo of Bya-yul was born.	1263
Chlag chhos rje dpal died.	1200
H Phags-pa of Sa-skya returned to Tibet from Mongolia.	1264
Kumára, the son of Meloñ rdorje (of the Rñinma school),	1402
was born.	
Gshon-sen died at Hbrug-Ralun.	1265
on and area are in the second	1200
CYCLE V.	
They what no died at Dhan one. Dhan one of St. days	
Thog rdug-pa died at Phag-gru. Phyagna of Sa-skya died.	1266
Dharmapála Rakshita, son of Phyagna of Sa-skya, was	1200
born.	1267
Hphags-pa again returned to Hor (Mongolia).	1268
Emperor Sa-chhen (Khublai), the grand son of Chhiâ-	1200
gis was engaged in building Peking and three other cities,	
from the year wood-mouse up to this year.	
Kharag grags rgyal of Hbrug died.	1269
Gshon-nu Smon lam of Bya-yul and Spyi-ther pahi Dvonpor	
~	1270
Sans rgyas yar-byon of Stag lun died.	1271
Guru chhos dvan died.	1272
The monastery of Tharpaglin was founded in the confines	
of Nepal and Tibet.	
$\tilde{\mathrm{Ye}}$ - h byu $\hat{\mathrm{n}}$ of Sa- s kya died in L ja $\hat{\mathrm{n}}$ -yul.	1273

Sakya bssan-po of Sa-skya became the viceroy of the thir-1274 teen provinces of Tibet, called Khri-skor behu gsum. Hjam-dvyans don-rgyan of Sa-skya and Dvan-bo brtan Blama of Bsos rgyan were born. Sans rgyas dvon grags dpal of Stag-lun founded the monas-1275 tery of Byams rinpo-chhe. Ssur-khan-pa dvan ye of Se-spyil was born. Grags-pa bsod dpal of the Bkah-brgyud school was born. Sñe-mdo Thams chad mkhyen-pa died. 1276 Rdorje rinchen of Hbrigon was born. 1277 Yeses blama of Stag lun was born. Sgampo chhos brgyan was born. • 'Rinchhen rgyal mtshan of Sa-skya died. Behuñ Tilli died at Hbrigen. 1278 Rinchhen Chhos rgyal of the Shi-byed school, who was the grandson of Hphrul shig-dar sen, was born. Hphags-pa of Saskya died. The twelveth Gchun died. Sansrgyas Ras-pa of the Shi-byed school died. 1279 Dharmapála became hierarch of Sa-skya. Bya-rog Rdson (jong) was captured. Rnog Gssi-brjid Grags died. 1280 Bya-yul Khams lun-pa died. Rga-Lo-cháva of Miñagag Ekra-grags, the red-cap Lama, died. 1281 Chhos rgyan, the son of latter Rnag Chhos rdor, was born. Shva dmar Gragr sen, the first incarnation of Bkra-grags the red-cap Lama, was born. Rdor rgyan of Ron, the first disciple of Ser sen, was born. Karma Bakshí died. 1282 Sans rgyas Sgompa of Bya-yul and Tshul khims Sesrab were born. The third Karma-pa hierarch Ran byun rdorje, an incarnation of Karma Bakshi, was born. Rdor-rgyal, the 28th hierarch of Hbrigon, was born. Rnog rgyal po dgah died. 1283 Lha-blo hod of Se-spyil was born. The Hbrigon-pa authorities burnt Bya-yul. Sans rgyas Gehun Ston died, and the abbotship remained vacant for five years. Thog kha-va died at Hbrigon. 1284 Lha brag kha-va died. 1285 Gyun-ston Rdor dpal, the pupil of Ssur-byams senge (the

Rñin-ma Lama), who was Karma Ran byun's spiritual guide,

was born.

was born.

died.

Jo-sras died.

dpon-po, was born.

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Dharmapála died at Sa-skya, and Sara-va II jam dvyans	
succeeded him in the hierarchy. Ne-sen of Hbrug Ralun died.	
Ratna guru of Stag lun was born. Htsham bchadpa died	
at Hbrigon. Phag-gru Grags-ye died.	1287
Senge rgyal-po of middle Hbrug was born. Mchhim nams	
grags of Snarthan died.	1288
Bu-ston Rin-chhen grub was born. Rñinma Lama Legs-	
ldan was born.	
The Sa-skya-pa authorities sacked II brigon.	1289
Tshul-mgon of Bya-yul was born.	1290
Gser-glin bkra sis dpal, a follower of Sans-pa, was born.	
Dol bu Ser-rgyan, a disciple of Jonan yon-rgyan, was born.	
Kun-mkhyen chhos sku Hodsser died.	1291
Grags rgyal of Phag-gru, who had acquired the fourfold	
Rũinma perfections, was born.	
Urgyan mgonpo ser dpal of Stag luft died.	1292
Mkhan-chhen Jñána Prajñá was born. Sa-chhen's (Khub-	
lai's) grandson Olchahithu, who was born in the year wood-ox,	
became the emperor of Mongol China.	1293
Rgyal-sras Thogmed bssan po dpal was born. The Rninma	

Lama Gyun-ston Ssla-va Hjam dvyans bsam-hgrub rdor je

Mchhuim karma klon-chhen-pa was born. Sgam-po Sni-va

Sans rgyas dpon-grags of Stag-lun died. Emperor Khublai

Tiśri Kun-blo, son of Dpal bssan of Sa-skya, was born. Gyag-sde, Panchhen (Brtson-hgrus Dar rgyas), the pupil

Tihi situ Byan rgyan of the Phag-gru dynasty was born.

Dvan fo-cháva Byan-chhub rtsemo, also called Blo-brtan

The monastery of Lha-sten was founded by Ran-byun rdorje. Hkhrul 'shig Darsen of the Shi-byed school died. The

The venerable nun Legs blo rgyan, a disciple of Bssan

Jonan Phyogs las rnam rgyal, a native of Mnah ris, who was

Bkrasis blama died at Stag-lun.

of Shva-dmar Grags-sen, was born. Ratnákara of Stag-lun was born.

Rñiĥ-ma Lama Meloĥ rdorje died.

the pupil of Dol-bu ser rgyan, was born.

dpal of Sa-skya, was born.

Karma Rñin Lama Gyun-ston visited Hor.

Khulug who was born in the year iron-serpent, became emperor.

Tisri kun rgyan, the son of Bssan dpal of Sa-skya, and

The Sage Sans ston Tshul mgon died. The saint Orgyan pa senge died.

Hjam-dvya $\hat{\mathbf{n}}s$ don rgyan were born.

Rînog Rin-bssan died.

year water-hare, ascended the throne.

van-thu died.

Another grandson of the emperor Sa-chhen, named

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was born.

Rgyal-mtshan Dpal bssan of Sans hbah-ra, who became the disciple of Ssur-phuva, was born. Gsar-ma Grags-ses, the twelveth Phag gru hierarch, was born. Hjag-chhen Byams dpal of the Sanspa school was born. 'Gñis-mchhod died at Phag-gru. Dpal-bssañ of Stag-luñ 1309 died. Gshon nu rgyal-mtshan of Ri-pa, the disciple of Ssur-phuva, was born. Rhog chhos rdor phyi ma died. Emperor Khulug died. Blama Dampa bsod nams rgyal mtshan, the son of Bssan dpal of Sa-skya, was born. Sans rgyas 1310 joyo of Bya-yul died. In Hor, Pauyanthu (born in the year wood-bird), the youngest brother of the emperor Khulug, ascended the throne. 1311 Yeses Lama of Stag-luñ died in India. Sans-rgyas Rin-chen died at Hbrug Ralun. Jonan Kun span died. The metaphysical theory of "Lun thig" was inculcated by Tshul rdor, an incarnate Rñiñ-ma Lama. 1312 The sage Hjam dpal yeses was born. Hjam dvans Kun 1313 dgah senge of middle Hbrug was born. After the death of Rdorje Rinchhen, Rdorje rgyal-po became abbot of Hbrigon and built the grand shrine of Hbrigon. 1314 S'esrab Senge of Ron died. Kun-dgah bssañ-po of Sñe-mdo died. 1315 1316 Dkon-mchhog dpal of Shan died. The (astrological and astronomical) work, called Rtsi Kun 1317 bsdus, was composed by Ran-byun-pa. Sgampo Sans-rggas Chhos Sen was born. The sage Gshon-nu Grub, the disciple of Sans-rggas ston of Sans, died.

Orgyan mgon-po of Stag-lun erected a large shrine and furnished it with images and religious books. Emperor Pau-

Gegen khan, the son of Pau-yanthu, who was born in the

Blo gros Rnam dag was born in Bya-yul. Bu-ston wrote	
the historical work called Chhos hhyuñ rin mdsod. Bssañ dpal	
of Sa-skya died. Emperor Gegen Khan died in Hor.	1321
Ye-sun-the-mur, the great-grandson of Sa-chhen (Khublai),	
who was born in the year water-serpent, became emperor.	1323
Rdorgyan of Ron died. Sans-rgyas-ston of Bya-Yul died.	1020
Sen-rgyal died at Hbrug Ralun.	1324
Nam mkhah rgyal-mtshhn of Lho-brag, who was Tson-	1023
khapa's tutor, was born.	1325
Mthah-yas (Ananta), the fifteenth Kulika, ascended the	1040
throne of Sambhala. Kun-blo of Sa-skya died. Yon-rgyam,	7000
the Jonan Lama, died.	1326
Emperor Ye-sun-the-mur died.	1327
The two sons of the emperor Khulug, namely Rinchhen	
Hphags (born in the year iron-mouse) and Kans'ali (born in the	
year water-tiger), successively became emperors, and each died	
after a few months' reign. Pau-yanthu's son Chi-yá-thu (born	
in the year wood-dragon) became emperor.	1328
The abbot Yeses b so d nam r gya- m tsho was born.	1329
Don-grub dpal, the son of Senge-hbum, the spiritual son of	
Rñog Chhos r dor, was born.	
Raĥ-hbyuĥ Rdorje visited Hor.	1330
Ran-hbyun Rdorje visited Hor. Ta-dven blo-rgyan and Ta-dven Chhos rgyan, the sons of	1330
Ta-dven blo-rgyan and Ta-dven Chhos rgyan, the sons of Tisri Kun-rgyan of Saskya, were born. Emperor Chi-yá-thu	1330
Ta-dven blo-rgyan and Ta-dven Chhos rgyan, the sons of	1330
Ta-dven blo-rgyan and Ta-dven Chhos rgyan, the sons of Tisri Kun-rgyan of Saskya, were born. Emperor Chi-yá-thu	1330 1331
Ta-dven blo-rgyan and Ta-dven Chhos rgyan, the sons of Tisri Kun-rgyan of Saskya, were born. Emperor Chi-yá-thu died. Ratna S'rí, the son of Kausalí, born in the year fire-tiger,	
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1354

1355

1356

Karma Rol-pahi

60

Jñána-prajña died.

of Gtsan under his power.

the Mnon-pa (Abhidharma.)

spiritual guide, was born.

Grub-pa S'esrab of Snar-than was born.

rdorje received the final vows of monkhood.

Blogros Seê ge of Rgyal-lha khan and others commenced

Hjam, dpal rgya-mtsho, the adept, was born. Chhos bshi gsarma Grags byan of Phag-gru, who became Tsonkhapa's

Tson-khapa was born at Tson-kha. His disciple Sakya bsod was born. Spyan sha-va Bsod nams Grags was born,

Tahi S'rí Kun-rgyan of Sa-skya died.	1353
Bsodnam Grags of Phag-gru was born. Bkra-śis dpal	
br tsegs of Stag-lun was born. Gyag-sde pan chhen founded	
the monastery of E-bam. Rnog chhos rgyan died.	1358
Blo-gros bssañ-po of Gtsañ, the pupil of Hbahri, was born.	
Byan dpal, the son of Rnog don-dpal, was born. Chhos bshi	
Rñiñ ma died at Phag-gru.	1359
Ratnákara, the abbot of Stag lun, died.	
Jonañ Lo-cháva S'er-rgyan died.	1360
Rimi hbab-pa was born. Rje Tsonkhapa received abhiseka	
from Don-rin-pochlie.	1361
Rgod phrug ras-pa Grags hbyun of the Bkah brgyud school,	
a native of Ninu, was born. Rje-blama (Tsonkhapa) became a	
(Sramanera) neophite mouk under Don rinpa. Tshul mgon of	
Bya-yul died. Rñinma Klon-chhen died.	1362
Darma Rinchhen (Khri-chhen rgyal-tshab) was born.	
Yeses rinchhen of middle Hbrug was born. Bu-ston Thams	
chas mkhyen-pa retired to the mansion of purity (died).	1363
Gser-glin-pa bkra-dpal of Sans died.	1364
Byan-Sems kun bssan, a pupil of Rje (Tson-khapa), was	
born. Orgyan mgon-po of Stag lun died. Bsam-gtan dpal of	
the Bkah-rgyud school died.	1365
Ston Sakya rgyan of Khams rgyal-mo ron was born. The	
monastery of Ron-Byams chien was founded by Sems-dpah	
yshon rgyal.	1366
The Mongol emperor Tho kwan themur, having lost the	
throne, fled to Mongolia which he ruled over. Hun-Wu, the	
founder of the Tamin dynasty, became emperor of China. Gyun	
slon, the predecessor of Mkhas grub, died.	1367
The great Tai Min invited the sage (sthavira) • Chhu-	
hgram-pa to China.	
Rgyal sras thog med was born.	1368
The twelveth Gsarma died.	1369
Sgom-po chhos dvan phyug was born. Ser-sen of middle	
Hbrug was born.	1370
Rje-blama (Tson-khapa) proceeded to Dvus and Ctsan	
(Tibet proper).	1371
Hor ston nam mkhah dpal, the abbot of the Byan-rtse	
division of Dgahldan, was born.	•
Rje-blama (Tson-khapa) visited Hbri-gon and Bde-va chan.	1372
The Vinaya teacher Grags-pa rgyal-mtshan was born.	1373
She lu Lore rayon (Khri-ghhau) was horn Ro-don abhos	

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rgyan Phyogs las rnam rgyal was born. Blo grags died at Snar-thañ. Blama Dampa bsod rgyan was born.	1374
Rje-blama collected the first series of his religious dis-	
courses. Hjam bsam rdorje, the Rñiñ-ma Lama, died.	1375
Grags don-pa of Snarthan was born.	1376
The monastery of Stag-rtse rnam rgyal sgan was founded	
by Mkhah spyod dvan-po (a red-cap Lama). Gyag-sde Pan-	
chhen died.	1377
Hjam-dvyans chhos rje bkrasis dpal ldan was born.	1950
Stag lun Nam dpal died.	1378
Spyan sna bsod bssan of Phag-gru was born. Mkhan-po	1379
Yeses bsod rgyara died. Dvan Lo-cháva Byan-rtse died. Dpal blan Don grub, also called Stag-phru-gu Srí, a disciple	1010
of Rje (Tson-khapa), was born. Chog-ro Nor-pa Kun-bssan	
of Sa-skya was born. Kun-rgyan of Sa-skya rdson was born.	1381
Byams chhen-chos rje of Sera was born. Spyan sna dpal	
bssañ of Phag-gru was born. Guñ Ru rgyan bssañ of Sera was	
born.	
Karma Rol vdorje died.	1382
The Indian Pandit Pan-thhen Nags Rin was born. De-	
bshin gs'egs-pa, the fifth Karma hierarch, was born. S'akya	
rgyal-po, the Rñiâma Lama, who was the abbot of Yaâ rtsc-ra,	
was born.	1383
The red congregation hall of S tag lu \hat{n} was erected by D pal	
rtsegs.	
Dge legs dpal bssan (Khri-chhen mkhas grub-thams chad mkhyenpa) was born. (He was the first of the line of Pan-	
mknyenpa) was born. (He was the first of the fire of Pan- chhen Rinpo-chhes of Taśi-lhunpo). Than-ston rgyal-po, the	
physician, was born.	1384
Ku-jo rtogs ldan was born. Karma Smras sen rtog ldan	1001
was born. Bsod rgyan, the twenty-second Phag-gru hierarch,	
was born.	
The shrine of Mamo in Dgah ldan was founded by Mkhah	
spyod-pa. The Bshipa gsar-ma of Phag-gru died. Jonan Phyogs	
legs rnam rgyal diod.	1385
CYCLE VII.	
The monastery of Sc-pyil was governed by the earlier	
Sakya bsod nams.	1386

Mus-chhen kun mchhog rgyan, the disciple of Dorpa Kun

Khri Blogros chhos skyon was born.

1387

1388

bssan, was born.

M khan chhen H jam-ye died. B lo se \hat{n} died at H brug Ra-	
lun. Ripa gshon-nu rgyal mtshan died.	1389
Dge-hdun grub, the first of the line of the (Rgyal-va	
Rinpo-chlie) Talai Lamas, was born. Bsod nam rgyal-mtshan	
of Se-spyil-bu was born.	
Hjag-chhen Byams dpal of San died. San Hbah-ra, the	
pupil of Ssur-phu and disciple of Spyan-sna Rin Idan, died.	1390
Byan-sems blo rgyan, the disciple of Rje blama (Tson-	
khapa), was born. Hgos Lo-cháva (yid bssañ rtse gshon-nu	
dpal), the Karma-Rîin abbot, was born. Rje blama, after be-	
ing miraculously visited by Hjam-dvyans, proceeded to Bya-	
bral in Holkha. S'er sen died at Hbrug Ralun.	1391
Rdsin-phyi was repaired by Rje-blama Tson-khapa chenpo.	
He was miraculously visited by Hjigs-byed at Rgya sog phu.	
Gshon-nu yeses died in Bya-yul.	1392
Byañ-sems ser bssañ of Smad was born. Rje blama	
(Tson-khapa) met Lho-brag-pa.	1394
Rje b lama founded the educational college of G nal.	1395
Rin-sen of So-spyil-bu died.	1396
Nam- m kha h d pal of middle of H brug was born.	1397
Bsod nams meliling grub of Snarthan, who became Mkha-	
grub's disciple, and Mkhan-chhen grub ser's nephow were born.	
The second Min emperor Hun-wu tsha ascended the	
throne of China.	1398
Grags-pa dpal ldan of Spas and Hdul-hdsin Blo-gras, the	
disciple of Dge hdun grub, were born.	1399
Bssod-pa dpal grub of Snarthan was born. Bsod nams	
rnam rgyal of Byams glin, who taught asceticism to Rje blama	
Tson khapa, was born. Lama kun died at the monastery of	1400
Snarthan. Nam-mkhah rgyal mtshan of Lho-brag died.	1400
Baso chhos kyi rgyal mtshan, the younger brother of Mkhas	
grub rjo, was born. Khri Blo gros brtan-pa was born. Spyan	
sĥa blo-gros rgyal mtshan was born. Dpal idan bssañ po of Idul	1401
nag was born. Sans rgyas chlos kyi señ-ge of Sgampo died.	1401
Byan-chlub rgya-mtsho of Stag-lun, the red-cap Lama,	
was born. Ratna glin pa of the Rnin-ma school was born.	1402
- migro poctatio citifrator en essession	1403
Chhos d vañ grags-pa of Shañ Shûñ was born. Ser-abs Rin chhen, called Stag Lo-cháva, was born. M khas	
grub rje took the final vows of monkhood. Dge-hdun grub	
entered monkhood. Mkhah Spyod dvan-po, the Shva-mar (red-	
cap) Lama, died.	1404
VWP / Mailla, Ulbu,	

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Chhos dpal yes'es, the third Shva dmar Lama and incarna-	
tion of Mkhah dvañ, was born.	1405
Mkhas grub Thams chad mkhyan-pa became a disciple of	
Rje Tsonkhapa. The fifth Karma-pa Lama proceeded to China.	
Spyan sna dpal bssan of Phag-gru died.	1406
Bkra-śis dpal hod of Stag-lun was born. Emperor Tai	
Ming (Yunglo) invited Byams chen chhos rje, abbot of Sera, to	
China. Grags bsod nams died at Phag-gru. Chhos hbyuñ	
Rinchhen, the saint, died.	1407
Dpal bssan of Se-spyil-bu was born. Tsonkhapa founded	
the grand prayer meeting of Lhasa, called Monlam chlicupo, and	
founded the great monastery of Rivo Dgah ldan mampar rgyal	
vahi glin. Kunsran bsod rgyan died.	1408
Panchhen bssanpo bkra sis of Bkra sis lhun-po was born.	
Sakya Sri of Tsan was born. Dge-hdan grub took the final	
vows of monkhood. Sakya bsod nams of Se-spyil-bu died.	1409
Sans rgyas hphel, the Rab hbyams-pa (doctor of divinity)	
of Byams chhen, was born.	1410
Rje-btsun Ren hdah-va died at Shin shun.	1411
Ye-ses rinchhen died at Hbrug-Ralun.	1412
Khri Smon Dpal legs blo was born. Gyag phrug sans dpal	
of Sa-skyn died. Lho Rin-po chhe grags yon died.	1413
Khri Yes'es bssanpo was born. Karma De-bshin géegs-	
pa died.	1414
Mthon-va don-ldan, the sixth Karma hierarch, was born.	
Hjam dvyans Chhos rje dpal founded the great monastery of	
Hbras spuñ. Da-puñ Bsod bssañ of Phag-gru died.	1415
Dge hdun bssanpo of Gtsan gi khyun-po bya-bral, the	
pupil of Baso, was born. The twenty-second hierarch of Phag-	
gru succeeded his predecessor. The historical work, called	
Chhos hbyun bstan-pa Usal byed, was written by Don grub	
dpal of Kam kam. Rūin-ma Rin glin recovered some concealed	
religious works from underneath the rock of Khyun tshan brag.	1416
Nag dvan grags of Stag-lun was born.	1417
Kun dgah don-hgrub, who founded Rgyud stod, was born.	
The monastery of Scra theg chhen glin was founded by	
Sakya yeses. Dharma Rinchhen became Tsonkhapa's succes-	
sor on the grand hierarchical throne of Dgah ldan. Rjo	
Tsonkhapa returned to the presence of Maitreya Bodhisattva.	1418
Ser rgyan of Snarthan was born. The monastery of	
G sa \hat{n} s \hat{n} ags m khar was founded.	1420
Rje-nor bssañ rgya-mtsho was born. Rgyan-Bde founded	
the monasteries of Gnas than and Ssun-man of Me-rtog Idan.	142l

Atsan blo-gros, the pupil of Dpah ra, died. Grub Serabs	
of Snarthan died.	
Chhos dvan-phyug of Sgampo died.	1422
Grags ser (the second) of Snarthan was born.	
Lo-cháva B so d nams r gyam was born. He wrote thirteen	
volumes. Bkra šis dpal rtsegs died at Stag luñ.	1423
Mkhan-chhen Dus Hkhor-va Rin rgyan was born. Karma	
Mtshur-phu-pa composed Byed rtsis and Sa-byar Sgrub rtsis	
and Gssah gnas drug.	
Hunshi, the fourth Ming emperor, ascended the throne of	
China. Nam dpal of Hbrug Ralun died.	1424
Panchhen nags kyi Rinchhen first visited Tibet. Bsson-te	
became the fifth Ming emperor of China.	1425
Dpal-hbyor lhun grub of Sera (a native of Gñal-ston) was	
born. The sixteenth Kulika, named Bhúpála, ascended the	
throne of Sambhala. Dpal Idan blo-gros of Sera was born.	
Sar Rinpochhe died.	1426
Sakya mchhog ldan was born. Rgyal dvan chhos rje dpal	
of middle Hbrug was born. Rtogs ldan Hjam dpal rgya-mtsho	
died.	1427
Blo bssan grags-pa of Hdar-ston was born.	
Hjam dvyans Dgah blo (Legs-pa chhos hbyor) was born.	
Ser bssan of Byan-rtse was born. Mchhog lha of Rva stod	
was born. Goram bsod sen was born. Rtogs ldanpa's incarna-	
tion, Rgya sras ses rab hphel, was born. Bssan dor kun-	
bssan of Saskya founded the monastery of E-bam. Se-spyil	
bsod llun died.	1428
B kra $\pm is\ d$ pal ho d -pa became abbot of Stagluñ. B so d r gyan	
of Se-spyil-bu died.	1429
Mkhas grub rje became the grand hierarch of Dgah Idan.	
Sans rgyas rinchhen rgyal mtshan, the Rnin-ma Lama of Ye-rtse,	
died.	1430
Kun-dgah rnam rgyal of Thon-mi, the disciple of Panchhen	
Byams glin, was born. Hbum phrag gsum-pa of Saskya and	
Kun-dgah chhos bssañ were born.	1431
Panchhen Ye-rtse of Bkraśis lhunpo was born. Se-spyil-	
pa Sñan grags was born. The monastery of Rgyud smad was	•
founded by Rje-sen. Bsod bssan of Smyun Gnas died.	1432
Mkhas grub rje wrote a commentary of the Kálachakra	
system. Hdul hdsin grags rgyan died.	1433
The monastery of Nalendra was founded by Ron-ston.	
The possession of Gtsan passed to Rin-spun from the	
hands of Phag-gru.	1434

1439

1441

1442

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1449

1450

The monastery of Stag mo glin was founded by Muschhen Dkon mehhog rgyan. The sixth Ming emperor Ting-thun ascended the throne. Kun rgyan of Saskya Jong died.

The monastery of Byams-pa glin in Chhab mdo in Khams was founded by Smad S'es rab bssan, the disciple of Tsonkhapa.

The monastery of Mdo Snags glin was founded by Byan Sems kun dgah. Mkhasgrub Chhos rje died.

Soms kun dgah. Mkhasgrub Chhos rje died.

Blo bssañ Ñima, the Dvon-po (disciple) of Tsoñ-khapa, was born. The first Hphag-pa-lha of Khams was born. Rjo Ñag dvañ of Phag-gru was born. The great chhorten of Dpal

hkhor chhos-sde of Gyañ-tse was built.
Chhos skyoñ bssañ-po (Shvalu Lo-cháva) was born.
Byañ Sems S'akya bsod nams of Rva-sgreñ died.
Yon tan rgya-mtsho of Thon-pa was born.
Bdag-chen Blo Rgyan of Saskya was born. Byañ sems kun dgah bssañ died.

Don yod dpal klan of Sera was born.
S'esrab senge of Snarthan, who founded the Rgyud grva tshan of Gisan and Dvus, died. Gu-jo rtogs klan died.
Kun dgah bdo legs rgyan bssan of Gnas rñin, who became Baso's disciple, was born. Lhariba of Rgyud stod was born.
Lha dvan dpal kbyor was born. Rnog byan dpal died.

CYCLE VIII.

Rinchhen Chhos rgyen (Chhog Lo-cháva) was born. The monastery of Bkra-śis Lhun-po in Gtsañ was founded. Nam mkhah dpal (Hor-ston, the Lama of the Mongols) died.

Byań Chhub rgya-mtsho (of the red-cap school) of Stag luñ died.

Chhos rgyal bstanpa (Rab hbyams-pa or doctor of divinity) of Dvagspo, who was S'ans rgyas hphol's disciple, was born. Kun hssan Chhos ñam of Rdo-ran was born. The monastery of Skyid tshul of Hbras-yul in Sa-skya was founded by Sans hphel, the Rab hbyams-pa. Hjam dvyans chhos rje died.

Ronston died.

Tsing-the ascended the throne. Legs rgyan of Shvalu died.
Guñru rgyen bssañ died. Bodoñ phyogs las rnam rgyal died.
Grags rgyan Sgam Smyon of Sgampo died.
Bsod nams wChhog grub of Sparthañ died. Shva dwar

Khri Sis dar legs blo was born. The seventh Ming emperor

Bsod nams mChhog grub of Snarthan died. Shva dmar Chhos dpal yeses died. 1451

Khri-pa Chhos bées was born. Khri-pa Rin hod was born. Chho Grags Yeées, the fourth Shva-dmar Lama, was born.	
Panchhen Nags rin visited Tibet. Karma Mthon-va Don Idan	
lied. Rimi hbab-pa died.	1452
Sgampo bsod rgyan was born. The seventh Karma hier-	
arch Chhos Grags rgya-mtsho was born.	1453
Phyogs las rnam rgyal and Chhos dvan Lhun-grub were	
born.	1454
Kun- b ssa $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ of $\hat{\mathbf{N}}$ or was born.	1455
Grub Chhos rdorje was born.	
Bkra-śis dpal, the Tantrik saint of the Karma school, was	
born. The eighth Ming emperor Then-srun ascended the	
throne of China. Byañ sems ser bssañ of Smad died.	1456
Chhos Idan blo gros of Rgyud stod was born. Panchhen	
Ñag dvañ grags-pa was born at Sñuñ.	1457
The second Sakya bsod nams of Se-spyil was born. Bkra	
sis dpal of Stag lun died.	1459
The second B kra d pa l of S tag lu \hat{n} was born. S \tilde{n} an grags	
of Se-spyil died.	1460
Baso Chhos rgyan became the grand hierarch of Dgah-	
Idan. Khri Blo gros Chhos skyon died.	1462
The monastery of Gonkar Rdorje Gdan was founded by	
Thon-me kun dgah.	1463
The monastery of Skyo mdah dgonpa was founded by Hgro	
mgon Blo gros bssanpo of Skyo mdah in the eighth year of his	
age. The nineth Ming emperor Hwa ascended the throne of	14/14
China.	1464
Blogros rgyal-mtshan founded the monastery of Ni-stin.	1.402
Stag Phrugu Srí died. Lo-chhuñ Dkah bshi-va died.	1465
Grags don of Snarthan died.	1466
Panchhen Nags rin died at Palpo in Nepal.	1467
Btsun-pa Chhos rgyan of Sera was born. Rnam rgyal Grags-pa of Stag-lun was born. The monastery of Gser-mdog	
chan was founded by Sakya mchhog. Mus-chhen Dkon rgyan	
died.	
Rje druñ Chhos dvañ Grags of Shanshun died.	1468
Bssan dpal died at Snarthan. Blo rgyan (Sems-Dpah	
chhen-po) of Bdemo than died.	1469
Smon lam blo gros, the first embodiment of Sems dpah of	1100
Bdemo than, was born.	1470
Bsod nams dpal bssañ of Stagluñ was born. The monastery	
of Grva Byams glin was founded by Thumi Lhan bkras. Spyan	
Sûa blo rgya-mtsho died.	1471

	L
Khri Chhos S kyon r gya- m tsho was born. Lha Chhos b ssan	
of Se-spyil was born. Blo brtan became the grand hierarch of Dgah ldan. The monastery of Thub-bstan rnam-rgyal was	
founded by Karam-pa. Baso Chhos rgyan died. Hdul nag-pa	
of Snar than died.	1472
Dge kdun grub died, and Panchhen Bssan-po bkra sís	
became abbot of Bkra sis lhunpo. Rñin-ma S'akya rgyal died. Dge hdun rgya-mtsho, the second embodiment of the Rgyal-	1473
va Rin-po-chhe, was born.	
Blo gros Grags dpal (Hdul hdsin) died. Byams pa Glin-	
pa died.	1474
Ssla-va rgyaļ mtshan-of Ston skor, an incarnation of Hdul	
hdsin grags rgyan, was born. Kun dpal of Hbrug-pa school died.	1475
Kun dgah legs blo of Sgom-rum was born.	1476
Khri-pa Panchhen bsod Grags, an incarnation of Bu-ston, was	
born. Bssan bkra having died, Lun rig rgya-mtsho became	
abbot of Bkrasis lhunpo. Ko-ram bsod Senge founded the	
monastery of Thub-bstan rnam rgyal glin. Khri Blo brtan	1 4 17 17
died.	1477
Ssur-man Bya btan-pa was born. At the sixty-first anniver-	
sary of Tsonkhapa, a religious controversy took place at Rtse-	1478
sar. The Rtse sar controversy having terminated, Smon lam	1410
dpal became the grand hierarch of Dgah Idan.	1479
The Lama Shva dmar led the Tsan army to Dvus. Hgos	1210
Lo-cháva Gshon-dpal died at Yid rtse.	1480
Nag-dvan Hjigs med Grags of Rin spun was born. Lo-	1100
cháva bsod rgyam was born.	1481
In the sacred chronology of Nor bssan rgya-mtsho the	1101
712th year of the second age expired.	1482
Byams Chhen Rab hbyams died.	1484
Talai Lama Dge-hdun rgya-mtsho entered monkhood.	
Grags ses rab became abbot of Snarthan. Kungrul of Rgyud	
stod died.	1485
Dpal bssan of Se-spyil died. Hphags-pa lha of Khams	
died.	1486
Sgam-po bsod lhun died. Hunti, the tenth Ming emperor,	
ascended the throne of China. Sgam-po bsod rgyan died.	1487
Lo-cháva Rinchhen bssañ of Shvalu was born. The mo-	
nastery of Nan yod śańs chłos sde of Sa-skya was founded by	
Hbum phrag gsum-pa. Gor rampa Bsod Sen of Sa-skya died.	1488
Blo bssañ Ñima became grand hierarch of Dgah ldan. The	

monastery of Thub-bstan Yans-pa-chan was founded by Rab	
hbyams-pa Thug-rje dpal of Mus.	1489
Khri Mi ñag rdorje bssañ-po was born. Khri Smon lam	1400
dpal died.	1490 1491
Khri-pa Dvon-po Blo bssah Ñima died.	1491
Khri Chhos grags bssanpo was born. Khri Dge-hdun bstan-dar was born.	1492
	1492
The work, called Bkah gdams Chhos hbyuñ Gsal sgron, was written by Las Chhon kun dgah rgyal mtshan.	1493
Kun dgah Grol mehhog, the head of the Jonan school, was	1490
born.	1494
Thonmi Kundgah rnam rgyal died. Kundgah bde legs of	1404
Gnas rhin died. Nag Grags of Stag-lun died.	1495
Khri rgyan bssañ was born.	1496
Rinchhen Spunpa of Gtsan, after taking Snehu rdson, took	1300
possession of Spyid S'an.—At the grand annual prayer meet-	
ing (Monlam Chhenpo) of Lhasa the Lamas of the Gsan-phu	
and Karma schools humiliated those of the Sa-skya-pa and	
Hbras spuñ schools. Khri ve bssañ died.	1497
Karma Grub thob B kra d pa l of G ñan founded the hermit-	
age of Orgyan Rikrod.	1498
Harston became grand hierarch of Dgah Idan. Panchhen	
mchhog Lhapa died.	1499
Khri nag dvan Chhos Grags was born.	150 0
Blo gsal rgya-mtsho of Tshar-chhen was born. Sgom-	
smyon died.	1501
Hjam dgah blo died. Kun dgah Chhos bssan, the abbot of	
Skyid tshal, died. Dpah-po Chhos dvan Chun Grub died.	1502
The second D pa h -po G tsug-lag phre \hat{n} -pa, the astrologer and	
chronologist, was born. Hbum phrag, Gsum-pa of Sa-skya,	
died.	1503
Khri D ge-legs d pa l of H ol d ga h was born.	
The third incarnation of the Panchhen Rin-po chhe, named	
Blo bssan don grub, was born.	
The sage Phyogs las rnam rgyal was born. Tin-to, the	
cleventh Ming emperor, ascended the throne.	1504
Karma Chhos Grags rgya-mtsho died.	1505
CYCLE IX.	

Mi bskyod rdorje, the eighth Karma hierarch, was born. Sañs rgyas dpal, the second incarnation of Hphags-pa lha Khams, was borr

The power of Gtsan-pa, having waned since the year firemouse, the monastories of Sera and Hbras spuñ recovered their place in the Monlam Chhenpo, the grand prayer assembly

Thub dvan bstan hdsin of Sgampo was born. Kun-dgah dual of Nan, who was born in the year fire-ox, became abbot of

Khri Tshe-brtan rgya-mtsho was born. Bsod dpal of Stag

Grub-chhen Chhos rdorje made over the book of miraculous revelations of Tson khapa to the Talai Lama Blo-bssan Don

Kya-Jin, the twelveth Ming emperor ascended the throne

Hjam dvyans mkhyen brtse dvan phyug was born. Rnam rgyal bkra sis of Stag lun was born. Don vod dpal ldan of Sera died. Chhos kyi Ñima of Rdo-ron died. Rab bbyams-pa of Dvags-po died. Chhos Grags Yeses of the Shva-

Mkhas grub Sans rgyas Yeses was born.

yanlag, the fifth Shva dmar hierarch, was born.

grub. Thon-pa Yon-rgya-mtsho died.

having died, was reborn in the same year.

Khri dam Chhos dpal hbar was born.

[No. 2,

1506

1507

1508

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1523

1524

Grub thob of Gnan,

Dkon mchhog

70

died.

Hbras spuñs.

the Buddhists.

of Lhasa.

Chhab-mdo.

luñ died.

of China.

dmar school died.

toos.] and his Outonougy of Troes.	7.1
Khri Dpal hbyor rgya mtsho was born. Metri Dongrub rgyal mtshan of Bod mkhar was born. Bsod nams Chhos hphel of Dgon Gsar was born. Hbrug-	1525
pa Padma dkarpo, the great antagonist of Tsofikhapa, was born. The sixteenth Kulika (fabulous emperor), named Dpal skyofi	
(Sri-pala), ascended the throne of Sambhala. The great Shalu	3.500
Lo-cháva was born.	1526
Bsod Grags-pa became the grand hierarch of Dgahldan, and wrote the Buddhist historical work called Bkah gdan Chhos	
hbyuñ.	1528
Khri Sesrab legs blo died. Rnam rgyal Grags-pa of Stag	• • • • •
luń died.	1529
The foundation of the monastery of Phan bde dgon was laid by Sans rgyas bkra sis, the father of Hphags-pa lha the	
second.	153 0
Khri Dge hdun rgyal mtshan was born. Sgom lde rnam	1000
rgyan of Rgyud stod Sar-va was born.	1531
Rgyal mtshan bssan-po became abbot of Rgyud-smad.	1532
Span dkar Rinpochhe was born.	1533
Tharpahi rgyal mtshan, also called Naga grub-chhen, was	
born.	
Chhos rgya-mtsho became the grand hierarch of Dgah ldan. Kun-bkra of Stag lun was born. The work on astrology	1534
and astronomy, called Rtsis gshun, was composed by Gtsugla	
phre n-va.	1535
Rje-druń Lha dvań Chhos rgyan, the incarnation of Baso	
Chhos r gyan, was born. The abbotship of Sera was filled by R je b tsun-pa. The H brigu $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ authorities dispossessed the D ge	
dan-pa hierarch of eighteen communities, Hod sna &c.	1536
Rdor bssan of Miñag became the grand hierarch of Dgah dan. Khri Chhos skyon rgya-mtsho died. Karma Hphrin las	
pa died.	1538
Khri Sans-rgyas Rinchhen was born. Khri-pa Chhos	
bses died. Khri-pa Rin hod died. Bya btan of Ssur man died. Rnam rgyal Dpal bssan of Rgyud Smad was born. Mkhan	1539
chhen nam r gyam was born. The monastery of M na h ris Grva-	
tshañ was built on a hill near Rtse-thañ.	154 0
The Talai Lama Dge-hdun rgya-mtsho died.	1541
The third Talai Lama Bood nams rgya-mtsho was born.	1542
The monastory of Phan bde Glin was founded. Kun legs	
of Sgom rum died.	1543
Khri Chhos ñer Grags was born. Khri Blo rgyam of Stag	

lun Brag was born. Khri Damchhos apal was born. Rje	
btsun-pa died. The monasteries of Tshal Gunthan and Stag	
lun lha khan were destroyed by fire.	1545
Rje-druft S'er dvaft founded the monastery of Dar rgyas in	
Khams. Nag dvan Chhos Grags became grand hierarch of	
Dgah ldan.	1547
$m{R}$ je b so d nam s r gya m tsho entered monkhood.	1548
The monastery of Bshad sgrub glin in Khams was founded	
by Baso sprul sku. Rnam rgyal Phun-tsho became abbot of	
Stag lun.	1549
Khri Ñag-dvañ Chhos Grags died.	155 0
Chhos Grags bssañ-po became grand hierarch of Dgah	
ldan. Sgampo Bsod lhun died.	1551
Mi G y σ S \hat{n} i \hat{n} -po (R je-dru \hat{n} tsha-wa-pa), who was born in	
the year fire-serpent, was appointed to the abbotship of Chhab-	
mdo. Sems dpah Smon lam Blo gros died. Sgam-po bsod	
nams Dvan-rgyal died.	1552
The second incarnation of Soms-Dpah, named Nag dvan	
Grags rgyan, was born. Khri Bsod nams Grags-pa died. Khri	
Miñag Rdor bssañ died. Karma Mi bskyos rdorje died.	1553
Khri-pa Grags-pa rgya-mtsho was horn.	
Khri-pa Grags-pa rgya-mtsho was born. Kun-bkra Lo-	
cháva filled the abbotship of Stag-lun. His father Sans bkra	1224
died.	1554
The ninth Karma incarnation, named Dvan-phyug-rdorje,	
was born. The first incarnation of Bsod nams Grags-pa, named	1555
Bsod nams ye dvañ, was born. Stoñ skor Ssla rgyau died. Yontan rgya-mtsho of Stoñ-skor was born.	1555
Dge-hdun bstan rgyam, the incarnation of Rje-druñ Sñags	
ram-pa (Dge-Bkraśis), was born.	1556
Dge-logs dpal of Hol dgah became grand hierarch of Dgah	1000
ldan. Dvan phyug rab-brtan of Gnas gsar was born. Bsod	
nams rgyantsho became the abbot of the Sora monastery.	1557
Dkon-mchhog rgya-mtsho of Sre (Hre) rgyud monastery	100,
was born. Bdag Chhen Bsod dvañ was born. Khri-pa Chhos	
Grags bssan-po died.	1558
Rje druñ Sesrab dvañ-po of Rgyañ Sod held the abbot-	
ship of Chhab-mdo.	1559
Khri-pa Tshul Khrims Chhos hphel was born.	1560
Thub-dvan bstan hdsin of Sgampo died.	1561
Shva lu Locháva Rin-bssan died. Rnam Bkra of Stag lun	
died.	1562

1669.j	
The incarnate Lama San's rgya chhos hdsin was born. Bsod nams rgya-mtsho took the final vows of monkhood. Dge-	
hdrun bstan dar became the grand hierarch of Dgah ldan. Tshe brtan Rdorje pha gus of Gtsan became master of	1563
the province of Gtsan. Panchhen Blo-bssan Don Grub died. S'esrab Phun-tshogs of Rgyara was born. Gtsug-lag hphren- va died. Kun dgah Grol Chog died. Hphags-pa Sans rgyas	1564
died. Kun agan Gros Chog usen. IIphags-pa bans 1gyas	
Panchhen R nam tharma B lo- b ssa \hat{n} Don Grub died.	1565
CYCLE X.	
The third incarnation of Hphags-pa Lha, named Mthoñva don ldan bsod nams rnam rgyal dvañ po hi sde, was born. The eighteenth Ming emperor Hwañ-ti ling Chhing ascended the	
throne of China. Khri Dge legs dpal died. Tshar-Chhen blo qsal died.	1566
The third Dpah-vo Karma Stsug lag rgya-mtsho was born. Tshe-rten rgya mtsho became grand hierarch of Dgah Idan.	1000
Khri Dgo hdun bstan dar died.	1567
Chhos r gyan of the G nas r ñi \hat{n} monastery became abbot of B kra śis lhunpo.	1568
The fourth Panchhen (Taśi Lama) Blo bssañ Chhos kyi rgyal mtshan was born Ser dvañ became abbot of Chhah mdo	
for the second time. A dispute between II bri Guń and S tag lu \hat{n} took place.	1569
According to his biography Panehhen Blo bssan Chhos rgyal mtshan was born in this year.	1570
Sgampo Khri-pa Bkra Sis kun Grags was born. Mkhanpo Nag dvan Chhos Grags was born. At Skyid Son the Phag-gru	
dispute took place. Sems dpah sprul sku Grags rgyan died. Khri Dkon mehhog Chhos hphel of Gliñ Smal, was born. The third embodiment of Sems dpal sprul sku Ñag dvañ Chhos	1571
rgya mtsho was born. The fourteenth Ming emperor Wan li Sin kya ascended	
the throne of China.	1572
Sar-va nam rgyan-pa governed Rgyud stod. Talai Lama Bsod nams rgya-mtsho founded on Potala the monastery of	
Rnam rgyal Grva-tshan which afterwards was converted into a	1250
Rñiñ ma institution. Gsal khañ sprul sku Chhos rgyan, who was an incarnation	1573
of Khri Dîag-dvan Chhos Grags, was born. Lama Táránátha	
Kun Sñin of the Jonan school was born. Byam-rgyam became	

the grand hierarch of Dgah Idan. The armies of Rin spun,	
after invading Dvus, returned to Gtsafi.	1574
Khri Tshe brtan rgya-mtsho died. Talai Lama Bsod nams	
rgya-mtsho proceeded to Mongolia.	1576
Bstan hdsin phun tshogs of Mgar dam was born. The	
monastery of Sku-hbum (Kumbum) was founded at the birth-	
place of Tson-khapa. Althan Khan received the Talai Lama	
Bsod nams rgya-mtsho, who in the following year founded the	
monastery of Theg Chhen Chhos hkhor gliñ.	1577
Baso Lha dvañ became abbot of Chhab mdo. According to	
the directions of the Talai Lama Bsod nams rgya-mtsho, the in-	
carnate Lama Bood nams ye dvan founded the monastery of	
Thub-chhen Chhos hkhor of Sbom hbor in Lithan.	1579
Talai Ilama Bsod nams rgya-mtsho visited Chhab mdo.	
Internal disputes raged at Hbrigun.	1580
Sans rgyas yeses gave the vows of monkhood to Panchhon	
Rinpochhe. Dpal hbyor rgya-mtsho became the grand hierarch	
of Dgah ldan. Guśri Khan of Hor was born.	1581
Dkon mchhog yan lag the Shva-dmar Lama died.	1582
The sixth Shva-dmar Lama, named Gar dvan Chhos kyi dvan	
phyug, was born.	1583
The abbot of Stag lun, named Nag dvan rnam rgya, became	
abbot in the 15th year of his age.	1584
Mkhas grub H phags-pa S'akya lha d vañ was born.	1585
Sgam-po Bkrasis rnam rgyal died. Bod mkhar Don-grub	
died.	1586
Hjam dvyans rgya-mtsho and Rgyal-va rgya-mtsho of	
Stod skor were born. Talai Lama Bood nams rgya-mtsho died.	1587
The fourth Talai Lama Yon-tan rgya-mtsho was born in	
Mongolia. The Dgah Idan abbotship was held by Dam-chhos	
of Dpal hbar, and the Rgyud smad hierarchical chair was filled	
by Rnam rgyal dpal bssañ.	1588
Blo bssan rgya-mtsho, the physician of Glin Stod in Gsan-	
phu, was born. Khri Byams rgya-mtsho died. Mkhas Grub	
Sans rgyas Yeses of Dven-sa died.	1589
Dgc-hdun bssan rgya-mtsho, the incarnation of Khri Byams,	
was born. Blo bssañ Ñag dvañ of Sgo-mañ was born at Bsam	
grub sgañ.	
The Panchhen Rinpochhe took the final vows of monkhood.	1590
Yeses rgya-mtsho, the first incarnation of Sans rgyas Yeses	
of Dven-sa, was born. S'ar-va Nam rgyan of Rgyud Stod died.	
The incarnate Lama Bood nams ye dvan died.	1591

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The H brug-pa Lama D pag b sam d vafi-po was born. B so d nams d ge-legs, the second incarnation of B so d nams	1592
Grags-pa, was born. Hphags-pa mthon-va-don ldan held	
the abbotship of Chhab-mdo. Guśri of Hor overrun Mgo dkar. Blo m Chhog rdorje of Sman lun was born. Dpon (Gover-	1593
nor) Bsod nams Chhos hphel, also called Rab brtan, was born.	1594
	1002
Da-yan Khan, son of Guśri Khan, was born. Sans rgyas	1505
Rinchhon filled the grand hierarchical throne of Dgah klan.	1595
Kun dgah bsod nams the Bdag chlien (hierarch) of Saskya	7200
was born.	1596
Khri Dpal hbyor rgya-mtsho died. Khri Dam chhos dpal	
hbar died. The abbot of Sgampo, Bkra sis Kun grags, died.	
Kun bkra of Stag luñ died.	1598
The Panchhen ascended the throne of Bkra sis-lhunpo.	
Mkhan chhen nam rgyan died.	1599
Chhos hbyor rgya-mtsho, the incarnation of Khri dpal	
rgyam, was born at Than-rin. Karma Dvan phyng rdorje died.	1600
Khri Nam dag rdorje blo bssañ don yod was born. Dkon	
melhog yar hphel of the Sre rgyud-pa monastery was born.	
Bsod nams methog grub of Shvalu was born. Rnam rgyal	
dpal bssan of Rgyud smad died.	1601
Mkhan-po Bsod nams mehhog grub was born. Nag rgyan	
became grand hierarch of Dgah Idan. The Talai Lama Yontun	
rgya-mtsho was brought to Tibet from Hor, and being given the	
vows of monkhood by the retired hierarch of Dgah-ldan, pre-	
	1602
sided over the monasteries of Hbras spuñ and Sera.	1002
The tenth Karma hierarch Chhos dvyins rdorje was born.	
Chhos dvyins ran Grol, the Rnin-ma Lama, was born.	
Rgyal sras Don rgyan-pa founded the Dgon-lun monastery of	
Amdo. Sems dpah Nag dvan Grags rgyan died. Yeses rgya-	
m tsho, the incarnate Lama of D ven-sa, died. Baso Lha- d va \hat{n} died.	
Hphags-pa mthon-va don ldan died.	1603
$\hat{\mathbf{N}}$ ag \hat{d} va $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ phun-tshogs r nam r gya l , the incarnation of Sems	
dpah, was born.	
Blo bssan bstan bdsin rgya-mtsho, the second incarnation	
of Dven-sa, was born. Chhos kyi rgyal-po rnam Rgyal rgya-	•
mtsho, the fourth incarnate Hphags-pa of Khams, was born.	
Baso-Rje-druft (Lha-dvaft chhos dvan phyug) died. The fort of	
Skyi-sod sgar was destroyed by the Karma armies. Chhos	
rgyan, the incarnate Sems dpah, died.	1604
Guśri Khan effected a reconciliation between the Oc-loth	_
and Khalkha Mongols, who were quarrelling on account of a	

question of precedence between the grand hierarchs of Dgah	
ldan and of Ston skor shabs drun named Rje-btsun dam-pa.	
For this service he received the title of Guśri.	1605
The fourth incarnation of Sems dpah Nag dvan phun-	
tshogs rnam rgyal was born. The grand hierarchical throne	
of Dgah Idan was filled by Chhos ner, also called Bses gnen	
grags. Khri Dgo-rgyan died.	1606
Táránátha wrote his Rgya-gar chhos hbyuñ "Rise and	
progress of Buddhism in India."	1607
S pa \hat{n} dkar Rinpochhe died.	1607
Dkon-mchhog rgyal mtshan, of the monastery of Sre-rgyud	
near Bkrasis lhunpo, was born. Dam chhos rgya-mtsho of	
Pa-chhe, the teacher of Sumpa, became abbot of Stag-lun. Nag	
dvan rnam rgyal of Stag lun wrote the work, called Chhos-	
hbyun (history of Buddhism).	1608
Bkra-śis grags rgyam of Sgampo was born. Don yod	
chhos kyi rgya mtsho, the incarnation of Rgyal sras, returned	
to Dvus. The armies of Gtsan invaded Dvus and withdrew.	1609
The Grva-tshan monastery of Amdo was founded by Likya	
Ser mehhog.	1610
Hdul-va chhos rje hod rgyam-pa reduced the monastery	
of Sku-hbum into a Gtsan institution. The Karma hierarch	
Phun-tshog rnam rgyal became the lord temporal and spiritual	
of Gtsan. Khri Sans rin died.	1611
The Panchhen Rinpo-chhe presided over the Monlam	
chhenpo (prayer congregation) of Lhasa between this and the	
year earth-horse.	1612
Talai Lama Yonton rgya-mtsho took the final vows of	1010
monkhood from the Panchhen Rinpo-chhe.	1613
Blo rgya-mtsho of Stag brag filled the grand hierarch's chair of Dgah Idan. Phun-tshogs mam rgyal of Gro-tshañ ka	
rin became abbot of Dgon lun Byams glin. The incarnate Lama	
Bood nams dge legs dpal died.	1614
Talai Lama Yonton rgya-mtsho died.	1615
Talai Lama Ñag dvañ blo bssañ rgya-mtsho was born.	1010
The Panchien Rinpo-chhe became abbot of Hbrags spun.	
Bkra-sis Phun-tshogs, also called Lha-pa chhos rje, held	
the abbotship of Dgon lun. Yap Sans rgyas chhos hdsin died.	1616
Khri Byams b kra was born. The incarnate Yap Lama Sans	1010
ye was born. Dam chhos dpal filled the grand hierarch's chair	
at Dgah ldan. The Gtsafi army beseiged Sera and Hbras spufi,	
and killed many thousand monks. Khri chhos ñer grags died.	
Khri Blo-rgya-mtsho died.	1617

The third incarnation of Bsod grags, called Grags rgyan of Gssims khan gon-ma, was born. Chhos hbyor rgya-mtsho,	
the incarnate Lama of Than-rin, died.	1618
Bsod nams chhos hphel filled the grand hierarch's chair at Dgah-ldan.	
The Mongol and Gtsan armies fought with each other at	
Rkyan than sgan, where many Tibetans fell. Khri Dam chhos d pa l died.	1619
Sumpa slo-dpon-pa chhe-va a second time held the	
abbotship of D gon lun. The fifteenth Ming emperor Then-chhi ascended the throne of China. The Mongols defeated the	
Gtsañ armies at Rkyañ thañ sgañ, and thereby restored lost territories to Dge-grags-pa.	1000
The Mongol Hphrin las lhun-grub, also called Smin grol Nomen khan, was born. Talai Lama Blo bssañ rgya-mtsho	1620
became abbot of Hbras spuñ.	1621
The Panchhen Rinpochhe erected the golden spire of the	1021
shrine of Behug-chig-shal. Grags rgya-mtsho became the grand	
hierarch of Dgah ldan. After his death the hierarchical chair	
was nominally filled by Nag dvan chhos rgyan. Khri-Tshul Khrims chhos-hphol died.	1622
Talai Lama Blo bssañ rgya mtsho took the final vows of	1022
monkhood.	1623
Dkon mchhog chhos hphel became the grand hierarch of	
Dgah Idan. Panchlen became the abbot of the Byan rtse	1005
college.	1625
CYCLE XI.	
The eighteenth Kulika emperor ascended the throne of Sambhala. Hjam-pa chhos rje (Chhos rgya-mtsho-va) became abbot of Dgon luñ.	1626
This year a little decrease was observed in the solar brightness, and there being an entire eclipse of the moon, the whole phenomenon was considered as ominous by Dpal lhun, of Phabon kha. The sixteenth Ming emperor Khun-tin ascended the	
throne of China. Dkon-mchhog rgya-mtsho of the Sre rgynd	
monastery diễd. Panchhen chhos $r_{\mathbf{gyan}}$ built a gilt dome on the monastery	1327
of D ga h l dan.	1628
Lchań skya Chhos rje grags-pa hod sser became abbot of	1.000
Dgon-lun. The monastery of Ron-po was founded by Skal ldan rgya-	1628

mtsho, also called Ron-po grub chhen of Amdo. The Shva	
dmar Lama Gar-dvan died. Dpah-vo Gtsug lag rgya-mtsho	
died.	1629
The seventh Shva-dmar hierarch was born.	1630
Khri Chonas-pa was born. Rgya-ra S'esrab Phun-tshogs	
died.	1631
Sumpa Slo-dpon-pa Dam-chhos rgyal mtshan became abbot	
of Dgon-lun.	1632
The incarnation of Sgampo, called Nor rgyan, died.	
Khri Blo gros rgya-mtsho was born. Blo bssan bstanpahi	
rgyal mtshan was born.	1634
Sgampo Bkra šis grags rgyam died.	1635
'Ldan-ma smon lam rab hbyor-pa (Tshul-khrims rgya-	
mtsho) became abbot of Dgon-lun. Gusri chhos rgyal entered	
Kokonur, and defeating the armies of the Khalkha tribes who	
were inimical to the Dgelug-pa school, proceeded towards Dvus,	
from which place he returned to Kokonur.	1636
Hkhon-ston dpal lhun died.	1000
Bstan hdsin legs bsad of Kon-po became hierarch of Dgah ldan, but he could not long hold the office and was obliged to	
resign it. Rje-Dge rin succeeded him. The Talai Lama and	
the incarnation of <i>G</i> ssim khan Gonma took the special vows of	1405
Smad hdul dge slon from Panchlen thams chad mkhyen-pa.	1637
Nag-dvañ bstan Hdsin Hphrin las (Skyid son shabs drun)	
was born. Ruam rgyal dpal hbyor (Chhos-bssañ sku goñ-ma)	
became abbot of Dgon-lun. Guśri chhos rgyal subdued Beri,	
the chief of Khams, and annexed his possessions.	1638
S'akya lha dvan wrote the historical work, called Chhos	
Hbyun. King Beri of Khams, being a follower of the Bon	
religion, was declared a common enemy of the Buddhist reli-	
gion. He was thrown into prison and punished with death.	1639
Mkhan-po Ñag dvañ chhos grags died.	1640
L chañ skya $\hat{ ext{N}}$ ag d vañ chhos b dan d pa b ssañ-po was born.	
Hphags shi-ya bssan-po, in the 44th year of his age, became	
abbot of Chhab mdo. Guśri khan entered Gtsañ and captured	
the king of Gtsan and annexed Gtsan kon to his dominions.	
He was proclaimed king of Tibet. The governor Bsod nams	
chhos phel became regent.	1641
Blo-bssañ bstan hdsin Hphrin-las of Khalkha was born.	
Bstan-pa rgyal-mtshan of Dvags-po became hierarch of	
Dgah-ldan.	1642
Hnbags-ni chhos royal died.	

Rgyal-va rgya-mtsho, the fifth incarnate Hphags-pa of	
Khams, was born. Six great nobles of China conspired against	
the emperor Khrun tin, and their leader usurped the imperial	
authority for a fortnight, after which the Manchu chief Sun-t'i	
Chhi-the tsun took possession of the imperial crown.	1643
The famous palace of Potala was built.	1644
The monastery of Ma-mgur in Amdo was founded by	
Lamo sprul sku Blo-gros rgya-mtsho and Hod sser bkra sis.	
Khri d kon m chhog-chhos h phe l died.	1645
Khri Dvags po died.	1646
The spiritual teacher of the author (Sumpa mkhanpo),	
named Hjam dvyañs-bshad-pa (Nag-dvañ brtson grus), was born.	
Dkon-mehlog chlos bssan filled the hierarchical throne of Dgah	•
ldan. Hor Don grub rgya-mtsho became abbot of Dgon-lun	1647
The abbot of Sgo-man, named Bsam grub Sgan-pa Nag	
dvañ blo bssañ dvyiñ chhos, became abbot of Dgon-luñ. He	
afterwards accepted the abbotship of Rva-sgren in Dvus, in	
consequence of which Don you rgyal mtshan of Hor dun	
succeeded him in the Dgon lun abbotship.	1649
Legs rgya-mtsho established a Tantfik school in the	
monastery of Sku-hbum. The monastery of Dgah ldan Dam	
chhos glin of Btsan-po was founded by the retired abbot of	
Dgon lun at Sser khog.	1650
The Talai Lama visited China (Peking), and was there de-	
corated with the insignia of Tai Sri by the emperor Shun-t'i.	1651
The Sde-srid (viceroy) Sansrgyas rgya-mtsho was born.	
Hod Sser Bkra sis held the abbotship of Dgon lun. The Talai	
Lama, on his return journey from China, visited the monasteries	
of Dgon-lun, &c.	1652
Dpal ldan r gyal m tshan filled the chair of the grand hierarch	
at Dgah Idan.	
Guśri khan died.	1653
Emperor Khang-shi (Bde-skyid), known to the Tibetans	
as an incarnation of Grags rgyal mtshan, was born. Sakya Lha	1654
Dvañ died.	
Tharpa Chhos rje (Bkra śis rgyal mtshan) became abbot qf	_
Ugon-lun.	•
The Rñin-ma Lama (Ssur-chhos dvyins Ran-grol) died.	1656
Guśri's son Ta-yan khan became king of Tibet. Hphrin	
las rgya-mtsho became Sde-srid (viceroy).	1659
Don-yod chhos grags of Lu-hukya became abbot of Dgon-	
lu ĥ ,	1660

4	
Blo-bssan rgyal-mtshan filled the throne of Dgah ldan. The second Manchu emperor Kang-shi (Shin-tsu) ascended the throne of China. Beach has Pla kyan chhoa gayan died at	
the throne of China. Panchhen Blo-bssan chhos rgyan died at Nag-ssla.	1661
The fifth Panchhen Rinpochhe (Blo-bssan yeses dpal bssan),	
who was Sumpa mkhanpás spiritual guide, was born. Sgo- mañ Bsam grub sgañ-pa died.	1662
The incarnation of R gyal sres, named B lo b ssa \hat{n} b stan h dsin,	1002
arrived at D gon-lu $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$. The abbotship of D gon-lu $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ was held by	
Dpal ldan rgya-mtsho of Bde rgyu-chha-va. Hor Dkah bchu,	
being invested with the title of No-men khan, returned to Btsan	
lgon from Dvus and established Hehhad nan. The period of Ishul khrim (síla) commenced.	1664
Nag dwan Hphrin las, who was born in the fire-sheep year,	1003
and who had previously filled the abbotship of Chhab-mdo, died	
his year. Sprul sku grags rgyan died.	1666
Blo- b ssa \hat{n} Don yod filled the hierarch's chair at D ga h l dan.	
Ta-yan khan died. The Sde srid (viceroy) Hphrin las died.	1667
Mchhod dpon sde-ha became Sde-srid (viceroy). Talai khan Ratna became king of Tibet. Blo-mchhog of	1668
Sman-lun died.	1670
Thu-bkwan chhos-rje (Blo-bssafi rab brtan) became abbot	10.0
of Dgon-lun. Khri Blo-bssan rgyal mtshan died.	1671
Khri-dkon-mchhog chhos bssañ died.	1672
Karma chhos Dvyins rdorje died.	1673
Byams pa Bkra sis filled the hierarch's chair of Dgah Idan. Likya Dpon slob Blo-bssan rgyal mtshan became abbot of	
Dgon-luñ. Blo-bssañ sbyin-pa became viceroy of Tibet.	1674
Nag dvan Blo-bssan rgya-mtsho took the vows of the Stod	
dul Dgeslon of Tibet for individual emancipation.	1676
Khri Blo-bssan of Don yod died.	1677
The layman Safe rgya-mtsho, who was born in Gron-smad,	1678
became viceroy of Tibet. The abbotship of Dgon-lun was held by Rinpochhe Bstan	1010
pahi rgyal mtshan (chhu-bssan sprul sku). The monastery of	
Lamo Bde-chhen was founded by Chha-kwan Nomen-khan.	1679
A long tailed comet was seen from Mnah ri. Shvalu Bsod	
nams died.	1680
Klu-hbum rgya-mtsho became hierarch of Dgah-ldan. A	
fearful earthquake took place in Tibet. The Talai Lama died. Dkon-mchhog yar hphel of Sre-rgyud died. Bstan hdsin	
hphrin las of Skyid shod died.	1681
Abutin was or walless and areas.	

The Talai Lama Tsha \hat{n} s d vyans r gya- m tsho was born.	
The astronomical work of Sde-srid, called Baidurya dkarpo, was	
compiled.	1682
Khri Byams-pa bkra śis died.	1683
After the return of Blo gros rgya mtsho to China, Tshul	
khrims dar rgyas of Chones became hierarch of Dgah ldan.	1684
Lama Rinpochhe Pad dkar hdsin-pa Yeses rgya-mtsho was	
born. The left branch of the Oeloth Mongols and the Khalklas,	
being on the verge of going to war with each other, Khri Blo-	
rgya mtsho reconciled them to each other.	1685
•	
CYCLE XII.	
Khri chhen Blo-bssañ rgya mtsho of Lamo of Dgah ldan	
proceeded to Peking.	1686
Lehan skya Tákau Srí Nag dvan Blo bssan became abbot of	
Dgon-lun. Bla-ma Blo-gros rgya-mtsho died at Hbog khog.	1687
Bstan pahi Ñima (the Rdorje slo-dpon of Sumpa mkhanpo),	
who was an incarnation of Khri Blo-rgyam, was born.	1688
Rdo pa Rab Byams-pa (Dpal ldan rgya-mtsho) became	
abbot of Dgon lun.	1689
Bsam-blo sbyin-pa rgya-mtsho of Bkah hgyur became hier-	
arch of Dgah-ldan.	1691
The Bde-rgyu chhuñ-va, named Kun-dgah rgya-mtsho,	
became abbot of Dgon-lun.	1692
The Sde-srid (viceroy) Sans rgya rgya-mtsho built the	
nine storeyed palace of worship (Pho dran-dmarpo) of Potala.	
The annual prayer congregation called Tshogs-method Smon	
lam was established by the Sde-srid to commemorate the anniver-	
sary of the accession of the Talai Lama Nag dvañ blo bssañ.	1693
Chone Tshul-dar became hierarch of Dgah-ldan.	1694
Blo-bssañ Nag-dvañ Hjigs med, an incarnation of Rgyal	
sras Rinpochhe, was born.	1695
The Sde-srid (viceroy) Sans rgyas rgya-mtsho wrote the	
work, called Boiser shva ser chhos hbyuñ, i. e., history of the	
rise of the yellowcap school.	1697
Lama Rinpochhe Ye-rgyam of Mon arrived at Hbras-	
spuñ. Chhu bsañ Rinpochhe became abbot of Btsan Dgon	•
monastery. Btsan-po Nomen khan died.	1698
Hjam dvyans bshad rdor became abbot of Sgo-man.	1699
Don-yod rgya-mtsho became hierarch Dgah ldan.	2000
Stag-lun shabs drun Chhos kyi Nima became abbot of	
Dyon-luñ.	1700
~ Post-trill	1,00

was born.

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throne of Potala.

slew king Lha-bssañ. The Chungar armies sacked the Rnin monasteries of Rnam

rgyal glin, Rdorje brag, Smin grol glin, &c., and made the Dge-lugs-pa church predominant all over Tibet. •

Under the command of the emperor of China the Talai Lama Bkal-bssañ rgya-mtsho was brought to Tibet from Skuhbun by Thu-bkwan Rinpo-chhe chhos rgya-mtsho and placed on the throne of Potala.

 H_{jam} -II byin rgan became abbot of Bkra sis hkhyil. dvyans bshad rdor died. The emperor Khang-shi died. third of the Manchu line, called Shin-tsu yun-ting, became emperor.

The Ocloth Mongols of Khokonur fought with the imperial forces and were defeated. The Chinese killed upwards of seven hundred mouks of all classes, including the abbot of Gser khog dgon, called Chhu-bssan rinpochhe, and destroyed many religious objects, and burnt down several shrines and congregation halls. They also demolished three great monasteries of Shva-vo khog as well as many hermitages. Many aged monks of Sku-hbum were also killed. Sumpa mkhanpo proceeded to Tibet.

The Chiuese, under their generals Kûng and Yo-u the-ü, destroyed the temples and grand congregation halls of the Dgon-lun monastery, and burnt thirteen sets of Bkah-hgyur, and killed many monks. The monasteries of the Hju-lag Sem- \tilde{u} i dgon schools, recluses cells, &c., were destroyed by them. In the autumn the three hermitages of Dgon-lun and Shva-vo khog, and the monasteries of Hju-lag were rebuilt.

Sumpa mkhanpa was appointed abbot of Sgo mañ. The nineteenth Kulika Rnam-gnon señ (Vikrama Simba)

became emperor of Sambhala. When the domon like ministers (Bkah blon) killed the viceroy (Sde-srid) Shañ khañ chhenpo who was a devont advocate of Buddhism, Phola Theje Bsod nams Stobs rgyas (king Mivañ) returned to Dvus from upper Tibet with troops of Ladag, Mñahri, and Gtsañ. He slew upwards of one thousand troops of Dvus and Koñ-po, &c., and entirely suppressed the enemies of the Government.

When the Dvus people rose in rebellion, Phola Theje, being reinforced by the Chinese troops, killed the three rebel ministers and removed the Talai Lama to Hkah-dag. Rgyal sres sprul sku became abbot of Hbras spun Blo-gsal glin. Phola Theje became viceroy of Tibet, and was also invested with the title of Chun-yan.

Dgon lun, Btsan dgon and other monasterics having been restored to their former condition, the author's predecessor Sum-pa chhos rje Phun-tshogs rnam rgyal and Rbu-chhos rje Blo-bssan dpal became abbots of Dgon lun and Btsan-dgon respectively.

The author (Sumpa mkhanpo) returned to Amdo from Dvus in Tibet.

The author founded the monastery of Bshad sgrub gli \hat{n} . The author accepted the abbotship of Bsam-gtan gli \hat{n} .

Van chhos rje-grags-pa dpal hbyor became abbot of Dgon lun.

At the command of the emperor of China the Lchańskya

1722

1723 1725

1726

1727

1728

1730

1732

Lohan skya, Rimm ohhe became famous for his excellent exponition of the work malled Rian Abrel stod-pa 1734 Emperor Yung ting aled and was succeeded by his fon The state of the s . 1735 Chhin-lung, The incornate Tha-kwan of Dgon-lun, named Blo-bssan chhoe kyi Nima, was born. At the command of the emperor

the author proceeded to China. Nag dvan rnam rgyal, also called Khyun teha shabe drun, became abbot of Dgon-lun. 1736 a great earthquake took place at the walled city of Ninsa mkhar, near the mountain called Glafi-ru, and destroyed the 1737 city. 1738 Panchhen Blo-bssan yeses died. The sixth incarnate Panchhen Dpal Idan yeses was born. Bde-rgyn shabe drun (Dgs-legs rgyal mtshan) held the abbot-

ship of Dgon luft. 1739 Reyal seas ye grage died. Blo beach dool, than the incarnation of Royal sras, was 1740 Bgyal tig Rab-hbyame-pa (Blo-lessan don-grub) hecame 1741 abbot of Doon-lun. A very long comet was observed in Tibet. 1742 The author (Yeses Dpal hbyer), in the forty-third year of his age, was called upon to fill the abbotship of the Dgon-lun

monastery,

original.

Inscribed Soul of Kumara Supta. By V. A. Serie, Esq., C. S. (With a Place)

The first appointment of the discovery of the seal, which forms

the subject of this paper, was made by an article entitled "An Archeological Find an the Prosen newspaper of the 18th May, 1889. The article attracted my attention and I published certain remarks on it in the issue of the same newspaper for the 28th May, 1889. A few days later Mr. G. J. Nickells, C. S. Judge of Campore, entered into correspondence with me, and informed me that he was the owner of the seal. He has very kindly allowed the to arange and describe the

11. 14 TOAK



COPPER-SILVER SEAL OF KUMÁRA GUPTA.

Full size.

I hoto-Colletype, Sarvey of India Offices, Calcutta, August 1889.

The seal (see Plate VI) is oval in shape, slightly pointed at each end, and is $5\frac{3}{4}$ inches long by $4\frac{1}{2}$ wide. The edge varies slightly in thickness, but is generally about $\frac{3}{8}$ ths of an inch thick. The surface is protected by the rim being raised above the face of the plate about $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch. The metal is whitish grey, and is thought by Mr. Nicholls to be base silver. The back of the plate is fitted with two solid buttons, each more than half an inch in diameter, by which it could be attached to another object. It probably was attached to an inscription engraved on metal.

The upper section of the face of the seal, being slightly less than one half of the surface, is occupied by a quaint figure of the mythical monster Garuda, executed in tolerably high relief. •He is represented standing on a base composed of two parallel lines, facing front, with outspread wings. His face is that of a man, broad and full, with thick lips. His hair is arranged exactly like the wig of an English Judge. A snake is twined round his neck, its head projecting above his left shoulder.

A circle, intended doubtless for the discus of Vishņu, who rides on Garuda, is faintly indicated in the field to the proper right of the figure, and a corresponding dim mark on the proper left is probably intended for the conch shell of the god.

A space an inch in length is left blank at the bottom of the plate. The interval between this space and the parallel lines on which Garuḍa stands is occupied with eight lines of prose inscription. The alphabet is that used by the Gupta kings both for coin legends and inscriptions on stone in Northern India. The letters, though minute, are well and clearly cut in moderately high relief, the vowel marks being fully expressed. Most of the inscription is easily legible, but it is damaged in places, especially in the middle of the second and third lines.

The seal was presented to Mr. Nicholls (who accepted it on behalf of Government) by a member of a very old and respectable Muhammadan family residing at Bhitarí near Sayyidpur in the Gházípur District, N. W. P. It was found at some date previous to 1886, when the foundations for a new building were being dug. It is certainly genuine.

The fact that the tablet is a seal is readily proved by comparison of it with similar objects.

The only other known seal of the Early or Imperial Gupta Dynasty is that which is fused on to the spurious copper plate grant from Gayá, purporting to have been made by Samudragupta. That seal is of copper, and is described as follows by Mr. Fleet:—"On to the proper right side of the plate, there is fused a seal, oval in shape, about $2\frac{\pi}{3}$ " by $3\frac{\pi}{3}$ ". It has, in relief on a countersunk surface—at the top, Garuda, represented

1889.1

The copper seal of Harshavardhana, above referred to, is even larger than the one now under examination, measuring $5_8^{T'}$ by 6_8^T . It weighs three pounds six ounces. "All round it there runs a rim, about $\frac{1}{4}$ " broad; and inside this there are, in rather shallow relief on a slightly countersunk surface,—at the top, a bull, recumbent to the proper right; and below this the inscription,"† in thirteen lines.

The Garuda device recurs on the seal of the copper plate inscription of Raja Tivara Deva (circa A. D. 800), found at Rajim in the Central Provinces. "The top of the seal is circular, about 3_{10}^{10} " in diameter. It has, in relief on a rather deep countersunk surface, across the centre, a legend, in two lines; in the upper part a figure of Garuda, facing full front, depicted with the head of a man, and the body of a bird, with his wings expanded, with, apparently, human arms hanging down between the wings and the feet, and with a serpent with expanded hood, standing up in front of and over each shoulder; on the proper right of this, a chakra or discus, the emblem of Vishnu; and on the proper left a śuńkha or conch shell; in the lower part, a floral device."‡

The device on the upper portion of a royal seal was invariably the emblem used by the dynasty concerned as its special cognizance. The seal under discussion and the Gayá one of Samudra Gupta settle definitely that the image of Garuḍa was the family cognizance of the Early Guptas, and so explain the phrase Garumad-anka in the posthumous inscription of Samudra Gupta at Allahabad, the bird-headed standard of the Gupta gold coins, and the reverse device of the copper coins. No doubt can now be felt that in all these cases the mythological significance of the bird-like figure is the monster Garuḍa, the vehicle of Vishnu. The

^{*} Fleet, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 255.

⁺ Fleet, ibid., Vol. III, p. 231.

[‡] Fleet, ibid., Vol. III, p. 292.

form of the Garuda-headed standard on the gold coins was, I am confident, borrowed from the Roman eagle, and the form of the device of the copper coins may have been imitated from a Greek original, that is to say, from the owl of Athene, especially as represented on coins of Pergamon.*

Sometimes Garuda is represented with human arms, as on the Rájim seal, and sometimes without them, as on the seal of Kumáragupta. The same variation of detail is observable in the case of the copper coins.†

The inscription on Kumáragupta's seals, is, as usual with seal legands, purely genealogical; and the greater part of the record gives the particulars of the Gupta genealogy in the standard form of words employed in the Bhitarí pillar inscription and other Gupta inscriptions.

In the beginning the seal omits, between the words apratirathasya and mahárája-s'rí-Gupta, a string of epithets given in the pillar inscription, but, from the words mahárája-s'rí-Gupta down to the name of Kumáragupta in the fifth line, the record is identical (except by omitting Kumára's title of paramabháyavato), word for word, with that incised on the Bhitarí pillar. The rest of the newly discovered inscription does not seem to be quite identical with the wording of any known record. A son of Kumáragupta is certainly mentioned, and the name of Kumára's queen, Anattadeví (?), is stated, but I am doubtful whether the name Skanda occurs or not. I can read only partially the 6th and 7th lines. The first four characters of the concluding 8th line are indistinct, but the remainder is easily legible, and shows that the seal belongs to the reign of Kumáragupta, circa A. D. 414--452.§

The antiquities at Bhitarí, near Sayyidpur at the eastern extremity of the Cházípur District in the North-Western Provinces, about half way between Benarcs and Cházípur, have long been known to archeologists. The site was carefully explored more than fifty years ago by Sir Alexander Cunningham and his friend Mr. Vincent Tregear. The latter became the possessor of a valuable collections of coins, many of which are now in the Bodleian cabinet.

The most notable relic is the monolith pillar bearing an inscription of the reign of Skandagupta. A translation of this record, made from Sir A. Cunningham's copy, was published by Dr. Mill in the Journal of this Society in 1637. Certain minor corrections in this translation were

^{*} Smith, Coinage of the Early Gupta Dynasty in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, for Jan. 1889, p. 24; see also Fleet, ibid., Vol. III, p. 14, note 3.

[†] Smith, ibid, Plate IV, figures 8-15.

[‡] Fleet, ibid., Vol. III, p. 53, etc.

[§] Smith, ibid., p. 6.

subsequently made, but the inscription was never edited properly until it came into the hands of Mr. Fleet. That scholar has now published (No. 13 in volume III of the *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*) an accurate facsimile, transliteration, and translation of the document, which I have made use of in writing the above notes.

"The inscription," observes Mr. Fleet, "is one of the Early Gupta king Skanda Gupta. It is not dated. It belongs to the Vaishnava form of religion; and the object of it is to record the installation of an image of the god Vishnu, under the name of Sárngin or 'the wielder of the bow of horn named Sárnga,' and the allotment, to the idol, of the village, not mentioned by name, in which the column stands."*

The site is marked by large brick mounds, and numerous bricks inscribed with the name of S11 Kumáragupta were found in the fields by Sir A. Cunningham, who also describes certain sculptures which seem to belong to the Gupta period.

The presence of Indo-Sassanian coins of the 8th or 9th century A. D. is an indication that the site continued to be occupied after the fall of the Gupta dynasty.†

There can be no doubt that it was a place of importance in the reigns of Kumáragupta and Śkandagupta, circa A. D. 414—480.

Remarks on the above. (With a chronological table).—
By Dr. A. F. Rudolf Hoernle.

The seal is a far more important one than would appear from Mr. Smith's statement of its contents. The fact is that it is not a seal of Kumára Gupta I., but of a Kumára Gupta II.; and that we have in the inscription of the seal, for the first time, a genealogy of the Early Gupta dynasty that enumerates nine generations, instead of only the seven hitherto known.

The last three lines of the inscription which Mr. Smith failed to read really contain the most important portion of the record, and contain entirely new information. Nor are these lines more doubtful to read than any of the preceding ones; and most fortunately the names of the kings occurring in them are very fairly distinct. The following is a complete transcript of the record, in Nágarí and Roman. In the latter transcript the less legible portions are enclosed in round, and the illegible portions in straight brackets. It should be remembered, however, that on account of the stereotyped formulas employed in such records, the reading even of these portions is perfectly certain.

^{*} See Fleet, ibid., Vol. III., p. 53.

[†] Archæol. Survey Rep., Vol. I, pp. 96-103, Pls. XXIX, XXX.

Nágarí Transcript.*

1889.7

- सम्बेरानी च्लेम् पृथियामप्रतिरथस्य मचाराजेशी ग्रुप्तप्रपी स्रस्य मचाराजिशी घटोत्कच-पी स्रस्य मचा-
 - राजाधिराज्ञश्रीचन्द्रगुप्तपुत्रस्य खिच्चविदौहित्तस्य महादेवां कुमारदेवामृत्यक्कस्य महाराजाधिराज-श्रीसमङ्गुप्तस्य पुत्रस्वत्यरिग्टहीते। महादेवान्दत्तदेवामृत्यक्कस्ययं चाप्रतिर्थयरम-
 - भाग-वता मचाराजाधिराजत्रीचन्द्रगुप्तसस्य पुत्रसात्यादानुद्याता मचादेखां भुवदेखा-मृत्यक्रो मचारा-
 - जाधिराजत्रीकुमारगप्रसास्य पुत्रसात्यादानुद्धाती महादेखाम्बन्नदेखामुत्यद्वी महा-
 - जाधिराजशीपुरगुप्तसस्य पुत्तस्यादानुद्वाती महादेखां शीवसदेखानुसन्नी महा-राजाधिराजशीनरसिंहगुप्तसस्य पुत्तस्यादानुद्वाती महादेखां शीमसीदे-
 - बामुलक्वपरमभागववा महाराजाधिराजत्रीकुमारगप्तः॥

Roman Transcript.

- 1. [Sar](vva)-rájochchhettuh prithivyám aprathirathasya Mahá(rája-Srí-**Gupta**-prapauttra)sya Mahárája-Srí-**Ghatotkacha**-
- pauttrasya Ma(há)
 2. [rájá]dhirája-S'rí-**Chandragupta**-puttrasya (Lichchha)[vi-dau-hittra](sya Mahádevyáṃ) [Kumá]RA-Devyám utpannasya
 - . [Sri]-(Sa)mudraguptasya puttras (tat-parigrihito Ma)[hádevyán DA](TTA-DEVYÁ)M utpannas svayam ch('á)pratirathah paramabhága-
 - . [vato Mahá]rájádhirája-S'rí-**Chan(dragup)[tas** ta]sya pu[ttras tat]-(pádánuddhyáto) Mahádevyá[m] Dπευνλουννών utpanno Ma(hárá)-
- no Ma(hárá)5. [jádhi]rája-Srí-**Kumárag[u]ptas** tasya pu(ttra)s tat-pádánuddhváto Mahád(e)vvám ANANTA-DRVYÁN utpanno Ma(há)[rá]-
- dhyáto Mahád(e)vyám Ananta-devyám utpanno Ma(há)[rá]-6. [já](dhirája)-Srí-**Purag[u]p[ta]s** tasya pu(ttra)s tat-púdánuddhyáto Mahádevyám Sríva(tsa)-devyám utpann(o) Ma[há]-
- 7. (rájádhirája-Srí-Na)ras(im)haguptas tasya (pu)ttras (tat-pá-dánuddhyáto Mahádevyám Srímatí-de) 8. v[yá]m u(tpannah parama-bhá)gavat(o) Mahárá(jádhirája-
 - Srí-Kumáragu)[ptah].
- * From the original seal; see Plate VI.

Mahárájádhirája-

† The portions enclosed within straight brackets are entirely rubbed away; those within round brackets are more or less damaged, but sufficiently legible. The upadhmaniya is represented by \$\beta\$.

Translation.*

(Lines 1 and 2.)—The son of the Mahárájádhirája, the glorious Samudra-Gupta, who was the exterminator of all kings; who had no antagonist (of equal power) in the world; who was the son of the son's son of the Mahárája the illustrious Gupta; who was the son's son of the Mahárája, the illustrious Ghototkacha; (and) who was the son of the Mahárájádhirájá, the glorious Chandragupta (I.), (and) the daughter's son of Lichchhavi, begotten on the Mahádeví Kumáradeví,

(Line 3.)—(was) the most devont worshipper of the Divine One, the Mahárájádhirája, the glorious **Chandragupta** (II.), who was accepted by him (i. e., Samudragupta); who was begotten on the Mahádeví Dattadeví; and who was himself without an antagonist (of equal power).†

(Line 4.)—His son (was) the Mahárájádhirája, the glorious **Kumáragupta** (I.), who meditated on his feet, (and) who was begotten on the Mahádeví Dhruvadeví.

(Line 5.)—His son (was) the Mahárájádhirája, the glorious Puragupta, who meditated on his feet, (and) who was begotten on the Mahádeví Anantadeví.

(Line 6.)—His son (was) the Mahárájádhirája, the glorious Narasimhagupta, who meditated on his feet, (and) who was begotten on the Mahádeví Srívatsadeví.

(Lines 7 and 8.)—His son (was) the most devout worshipper of the Divine One, the Mahárájádhirája, the glorious **Kumáragupta** (II.), who meditated on his feet, (and) who was begotten on the Mahádeví S'rí-MATÍDEVÍ.

All the names of the kings are quite legible on the original scal: quite sufficiently so, to identify them satisfactorily. † Of the names of the two last queens, Srivatsa and Srimati, the two first syllables respectively (Sriva and Srima) are legible; but the terminal ones (tsa and ti) can only be faintly seen.

Before discussing the information of this record, some of its techni-

read svayam cha pratirathah; see below.

^{*} I follow Mr. Fleet's translation (Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 54) as far as it goes.

⁵⁴⁾ as far as it goes.

+ Or, "who was himself an antagonist (of equal power to all his enemies)," if we

[‡] The photographic plate unfortunately is not quite as distinct, as one would wish. The original plate requires to be held in various lights, and to be examined with a large magnifying glass; but with these helps there is really not much difficulty in reading the whole of the record, with the exception of those small and unimportant portions (in straight brackets) that are entirely rubbed away (apparently during the process of cleaning the plate.)

calities may be briefly noted. Firstly, the uniform use of the upadhmáníya, in 1. 1, rájochchhettuh prithivyám; 1. 3, apratirathah parama°; 1. 8, utpannah parama°; and secondly, of the doubling of t and dh when followed by r and y respectively, as in 1. 1, prapauttrasya and pauttrasya; 1. 2, puttrasya and dauhittrasya; 1. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, puttras; 1. 4, 5, 6, 7, pádánuddhyáto; thirdly, the assimilation of the visarga to a following s, in 1. 3, utpannas-svayam; fourthly, the reading svayam ch'ápratirathah in 1. 3. The same phrase is read by Mr. Fleet* in the Bhitarí stone inscription (1. 4) svayam apratirathasya. The phrase also occurs in Kumáragupta I.'s Bilsad stone inscription and in Skandagupta's Bihár stone inscription* but in the former it is illegible, and in the latter it is cut away and lost. There are, therefore, only two

Bhitari stone inscription (l. 4) svayam apratirathasya. The phrase also occurs in Kumáragupta I.'s Bilsad stone inscription and in Skandagupta's Bihár stone inscription* but in the former it is illegible, and in the latter it is cut away and lost. There are, therefore, only two records (the seal and the stone of Bhitari) to establish the reading; and the exact point is whether the akshara that follows svaya should be read ma or cha. Now in the Bhitari stone inscription (at least, as shown in Mr. Fleet's plate) the akshara is too indistinct to be definitely identified; while on the Bhitari seal it is quite distinctly cha. Moreover the seal has a distinct anuswára over the ya of sraya, which anuswára is apparently also present on the Bhitari stone; and the anuswára only agrees with the reading cha or rather chá. The vowel mark over cha is hardly distinguishable in the present state of the seal; and the reading cha pratirathah would also give sense, but a sense not quite so suitable to the context (see the translation, above). It is preferable, therefore, to read svayam ch'ápratirathah.

The record gives the names of nine kings, viz., 1, Gupta, 2, Ghatot-

kacha, 3, Chandragupta I., 4, Samudragupta, 5, Chandragupta II., 6, Kumáragupta I., 7, Puragupta, 8, Narasimhagupta, and 9, Kumáragupta II.; and it states distinctly that each of these kings stood in the relation of son to the preceding one. It further gives the names of six queens, viz., 1, Kumáradeví, the wife of Chandragupta I. and mother of Samudragupta; 2, Dattadeví, the wife of Samudragupta and mother of Chandragupta II.; 3, Dhruvadeví, the wife of Chandragupta II. and mother of Kumáragupta I.; 4, Anantadeví, the wife of Kumáragupta and mother of Puragupta; 5, Srívatsadeví, the wife of Puragupta and mother of Narasimhagupta; and 6, Srímatídeví, the wife of Narasimhagupta and mother of Kumáragupta II.

The two longest genealogies of the Early Guptas, hitherto known, are those on two stone pillar inscriptions, both of Skandagupta, tone at Bhitari, the other at Bihar. That at Bihar is greatly mutilated and

^{*} Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 53; also pp. 43, 50.

[†] They are given by Fleet in Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, pp. 47 and 52.

of subordinate value. They mention only the following seven kings: 1, Gupta, 2, Ghatotkacha, 3, Chandragupta I., 4, Samudragupta, 5, Chandragupta II., 6, Kumáragupta, 7, Skandagupta. Here again each king is expressly stated to have been the son of his predecessor. They further name the following three queens: 1, Kumáradoví, wife of Chandragupta I. and mother of Samudragupta; 2, Dattadeví, wife of Samudragupta and mother of Chandragupta II.; 3, Dhruvadoví, wife of Chandragupta II. and mother of Kumáragupta I.

In the main these two records agree with that of the seal; and this proves that the seal is that of a member of the great Early (or Imperial) Gupta family. This is shown also by the use of the imperial title Mahárájúdhirája. But there are two important differences. The first is that the seal calls the seventh member of the line Puragupta, while the other two records call him Skandagupta. The second is that the seal carries the line down to the ninth generation, to another Kumáragupta, and traces it through Puragupta, instead of through Skandagupta. This proves two things: 1, that the Early Gupta dynasty did not terminate, as it has been hitherto believed, with Skandagupta, but that it lasted for, at least, two generations' longer (i. e., down to about 550 A. D.); and secondly that there was a second Kumaragupta among the Early Guptas. The latter discovery may possibly necessitate a reconsideration of all those chronological and other speculations which were based on the (hitherto uncontradicted) belief, that there was but one Kumáragupta in the dynasty.

The chief difficulty is that with respect to the relation of Puragupta to Skandagupta. Are they but different names of the same person, or was one the (younger) brother of the other?

One point may be noted with regard to these two kings. The inscription on the seal states that Puragupta's mother, and, therefore, Kumáragupta I.'s queen, was named Anantadevi. The two stone inscriptions do not name Skandagupta's mother or Kumáragupta's queen, though they speak of her. In the Bhitari inscription it is related, how Skanda restored the imperial power of the Guptas, which appears to have suffered a serious reverse during his father Kumáragupta's time; and how he afterwards visited his mother to report to her his victories; but the mother is not named. In the Bihar inscription, it is stated that Kumaragupta married the sister of some person, whose name, however, as well as that of his sister are unfortunately lost in the mutilated record. But from a subsequent equally fragmentary portion of the record (see I. 13 in Fleet's transcript) it would seem that the brother's name may have been Anantasena. In that case, his sister would probably have been named Anantadevi; and this would agree with the record on the seal. In that case, further, Skandagupta and Puragupta would have had not only the same

father Kumáragupta, but also the same mother Anantadeví. It may be further noted, that while the scal names Srívatsadoví as the queen of Puragupta, the queen of Skandagupta is nowhere either named or oven mentioned. So far as his records are concerned, he might not have been married at all.

The question still remains, are Skandagupta and Puragupta the same persons, or are they brothers? It seems hardly probable that in such genealogies the same person would be called by different names. The probability, as I shall show further on, would seem to be, that Puragupta is a (younger) brother of Skandagupta, and succeeded the latter, who died without issue. There would still be a difficulty in the fact, that Skandagupta is entirely omitted from the list on the seal. But such omissions are not without precedent in lists which are rather intended to record the line of descent than the line of succession.* The term pidianullyita, however, no doubt, properly indicates Puragupta as having been the immediate successor of his father rather than a remoter successor of him after his brother Skandagupta.

The discovery of this seal solves another mystery. Among the gold coinage of the Early Guptas, certain coins have been found, bearing the name of Nara (or Naragupta) and the title Bálúditya.† That they belong to the proper Gupta class of coins, has never been seriously doubted; their resemblance to them is too thorough. But the difficulty was, where to place them; as no member of the Gupta family, called Nara, was known to have existed. It can hardly be doubtful now, to whom these Nara-coins belong. They are clearly issues of the Nara-sinhagupta of the new seal.

This, however, suggests a further consequence. Mr. Smith, in his Coinage of the Early Gupta Dynasty, has shown (pp. 40) that certain specimens of the Gupta coinage show an exceptionally heavy weight. Some of these coins belong to Nara (simhagupta); others to a king of an unknown name who has the title of Prakáśditya; others again to a certain Kumáragupta. The obverse of the Prakáśditya coins would (as usual) give the proper name of the king; but unfortunately in all the specimens hitherto found the name is lost. It may now be suggested

^{*} A very curious, though not quite analogous, case of a similar emission occurs in one of the Valabhi grants (No. 1X, in *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. VII, p. 66), where Guhasena's father Dharapatta is omitted, and he is placed immediately after his uncle Dhruvasena I. It is not impossible, that Dharapatta never reigned; if so, the record is one of the line of succession rather than of the line of descent.

[†] Mr. Smith denies the occurrence of Gupta; see his Coinage of the Early Gupta Dynasty, p. 118. But see fig. 22, on Pl. XVIII of the Ariana Antiqua. The fact, however, whether the coins do or do not bear the word Gupta, does not affect the argument.

that these coins perhaps belong to Puragupta. The heavy coins of Kumáragupta, with the special title of Kramáditya, should probably now be ascribed to Kumáragupta II., the last of the list on the seal, and not to the Kumáragupta who is numbered the fourth in the list of the Later Gupta dynasty of Magadha.*

It is impossible to identify the Kumáragupta II. of the Bhitarí scal with the Kumáragupta of the Later Guptas, although their periods probably coincide. For all the other names do not agree. The later Kumáragupta was the fourth of his line and was preceded by three princes, viz., Krishnagupta, Harshagupta, and Jivitagupta I., standing in the relation of father to son. It would, then, be necessary to assume that Jivitagupta I., Harshagupta and Krishnagupta were identical respectively with Narasimhagupta, Puragupta and Kumágupta I., which is clearly inadmissible. Or supposing Krishnagupta to have immediately followed Skandagupta of the early dynasty, and even assuming Puragupta and Narasimhagupta to be identical with Krishnagupta and Harshagupta, there would Jivitagupta still remain to be accounted for, and the Kumáragupta II. of the seal would fall one generation earlier than the Kumáragupta of the later dynasty. Further, the Kumáragupta II. of the seal bears the well-known imperial titles equally with his predecessors of the early dynasty; while the Kumáragupta of the later dynasty, as shown in the Aphsad stone inscription, + lays, equally with his predecessors, no claim even to the subordinate title of Mahárája. They designate themselves merely nripa or bhúpati. It was only the fourth of Kumára's successors, Adityasena (preceded by Dámodaragupta, Mahásenagupta and Mádhavagupta), who was the first to lay again claim to the imperial title of Mahárájádhirája.‡ The seal, thus, decides a hitherto open question and proves that the Later Guptas of Magadha were not direct descendants of the Early Guptas. For the first three members of the Later Gupta line, Krishna, Harsha and Jivita I., must practically have been contemporaries of the three last members of the Early Gupta line, Rura, Narasimha and Kumára II. And as Narasimha Báláditya is also called a king of Magadha (e. g., by Hiuen Tsiang, see below), it is clear that Krishna and his immediate successors can only have been small princes or chiefs in Magadha, by the side of their imperial relatives. Similar remarks apply to the Later Guptas of Eastern Málava, Budhagupta and Bhánugupta.

There are two other references to Narasimhagupta, under his title of Báláditya, in two inscriptions of much later times. The first is the

^{*} See the list in Fleet's volume III. of the Corpus Inscr. Ind., p. 205.

[†] See ibid., pp. 202, 203.

[‡] See ibid., p. 212.

Deo-Baranárk inscription of Jívitagupta II. of the Later Gupta dynasty. In this inscription Narasimhagupta is referred to as an emperor (parmeśvara) who ruled long previously. The distance in time between Jívitagupta II. and Narasimhagupta would be about 200 years. The second is the Sárnáth inscription of a certain king, Prakatáditya of Benares, of the end of the seventh century A. D. Here Narasimhagupta is referred to as one of Prakatáditya's early ancestors, and as the ruler of Madhyadeśa or the central portion of Northern India. This description would not be unsuitable to the ancestral portion of the dominions of the Early Guptas.

The historic truth of the new seal is also proved by the inscriptions on the copper-plate grants of the so-called Parivrájaka Mahárájas, which were all issued during "the enjoyment of sovereignty by the Gupta kings." The seal shows that the line of the Early Guptas was continued down to Kumáragupta II. The latter must be placed about A. D. 530-550, and the latest of the Parivrájaka grants is dated in A. D. 528. The earliest is dated in A. D. 475; therefore already in the reign of Puragupta (see below). They all fall within the period of the great decadence of the Gupta power; and this fact may possibly account for the circumstance, that in those grants the Guptas are simply designated by the vague term uripa 'king.' At the same time, Mr. Fleet's observation,* that "they show that the Gupta dominion still continued, and the name of the Gupta kings was still recognised as a power, down to A. D. 528," is fully borne out by the new seal.

I add to these remarks, for ready reference, a synchronistic Table of the probable reigns of the Early Guptas and their contemporaries or immediate successors. The numbers within angular brackets give the known dates, derived from inscriptions and other sources. Various observations suggest themselves by this table.

For an approximate determination of the period of Puragupta and Narasimhagupta we have the following data. Hinen Tsiang relates, how Mihirakula was defeated and taken prisoner by king Báláditya of Magadha.† This reference,—there can hardly be a doubt—is to Mihirakula's final overthrow in India; for, on being released by Báláditya, he is said to have retired to Kashmír. The credit of this great overthrow, however, is ascribed to a king Yaśodharman in one of the latter's Mandasor stone pillar inscriptions.‡ In it it is stated that, at some time previous to the setting up of the pillar, Yaśodharman had subdued and extended his dominion over countries which even the Guptas and Húnas

^{*} See Corpus Inscr. Ind., Vol. III, p. 8.

[†] See Beal's Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. I, pp. 168-170.

¹ No. 33, in Fleet's Corp. Inscr. Ind., Vol. III, p. 142.

had not possessed. This inscription is not dated, but its date cannot have been very different from that of another Mandasor stone inscription of Yasodharman,* dated in A. D. 533-534, because they were both ongraved by the same person Govinda. In this inscription, it is stated that Yasodharman, who was originally only a tribal chieftain (jinendra or narádhipati), succeeded in conquering the countries around him and thus founding an empire, after which he took the name of Vishnuvardhana and the imperial titles of rájádhirája and parameśvara. Of these two inscriptions, the latter would seem to be-if anything-the later in date. In any case Mihirakula's overthrow would fall some time previously to A. D. 533; and it may be set down in A. D. 530, or perhaps even a little earlier. + It follows, that Báláditya, in whose reign Mihirakula's overthrow took place, must have reigned down to about A. D. 530. The circumstance, that the overthrow is ascribed to both Báláditya and Yasodharman, would seem to be best explained thus, that Báláditya was, at least nominally, the paramount ruler or Emperor (Máhárájadhirája), and that Yasodharman, at that time a mere 'tribal chieftain,' was one of his feudatories or lieutenants, who actually accomplished the defeat of Mthirakula, but thereupon took advantage of his great success to found an empire for himself. In fact, it was probably Yasodharman (rather than the Húnas) that supplanted Kumáragupta II., some time after 530 A. D., thus finally breaking up the Early Gupta empire, and building up his own empire on its ruins.

On the other hand Skandagupta's carliest recorded date is A. D. 455. From this date down to A. D. 530 there are 75 years; and for this interval we have three names Skandagupta, Puragupta and Narasimhagupta. The interval can be more easily filled up by two generations including three reigns, than by two generations including only two reigns; i. e., by assuming that Skandagupta and Puragupta were brothers, succeeding one another and being themselves succeeded by Narasimhagupta. Skandagupta is known to have been still reigning in A. D. 466 or 468. He may have been succeeded by his (younger) brother Puragupta c. A. D. 470, and the latter, c. A. D. 485, by his son Narasimhagupta. This would give to Narasimhagupta the long reign of about 45

^{*} No. 35, ibid., Vol. III, p. 150.

[†] In these calculations I follow, in the main, Mr. Fleet's romarks, in Corp. Inscr. Ind., Vol. III, pp. 10-12 (Indrod.), 146, 152. But I do not agree with his view about Vishnuvardhana, ibid., p. 151. (See Proceedings for August, 1889.) It seems to me better to accept the words, in 1. 5 of the inscription, in their obvious sense that Yaśodharman is identical with Vishnuvardhana, and to suppose that Yaśodharman assumed the title Vishnuvardhana after (and perhaps in commemoration) of his great victory. It is most improbable that the imperial titles of rájádhirája and parameévara should be ascribed to a mere feudatory.

years, if he was still reigning in A. D. 530. There is, however, nothing at all improbable in this supposition.

Further, Narasimhagupta calls himself Báláditya on his coins. We have seen that the Báláditya of Hinen Tsiang's account reigned down to c. 530 A. D.; and that it is quite possible that the Narasimhagupta of the seal reigned down to that date. It may, therefore, be concluded as most probable that the Narasimhagupta of the seal is identical with the Nara Báláditya of the coins as well as the Báláditya of Magadha, by whom, or rather in whose reign Mihirakula was overthrown by Yaśodharman.

A curious glimpse of Narasimhagupta is afforded in a passing allusion, in connection with the Valabhi king Dronasimha, to his suzerain power, the Early Guptas. The early Valabhi rulers, as is well known, were vassals of the Early Guptas. The third of the Valabhi line was Dronasimha, a younger son of the founder of that line, Bhatarka Senápati. Regarding this Dronasimha it is mentioned in the Valabhí genealogies that he "was anointed in the kingship by the paramount master (parama-svamin) in person" Mr. Fleet* has suggested that this " paramount master" was Yasodharman, who defeated Mihirakula e. 530 A. D. Now Dhruvasena I. was reigning in 526, as shown by his inscription. Dronasimha was his predecessor; and his accession must, therefore, be placed c. 520 A. D. It is not probable that Yasodharman was already in 520 A. D. an 'emperor' whose sway extended over the Valabhis. In fact, as I have tried to show, it is more probable, that in A. D. 530 he was still a mere 'tribal chieftain' and lieutenant of the emperor Narasimhagupta, and that his great power only dated from that victory over Mihirakula. On the other hand, about A. D. 520, Narasimhagupta must have still enjoyed the imperial dignity of the Guptas: and however much it may have been shorn of its ancient splendour, it was clearly still so much recognised by the Valabhis, that Dronasimha got himself "anointed" by the still existing representative of that power. It may be added that the simple reference to the parama-scamin or "paramount master" is more easily explainable if applied to the old accustomed suzerain power of the Guptas, than to a new emperor like Yaśodharman.

That notice about Dronasinha's "being anointed by his paramount master" is a rather curious one. His two predecessors enjoyed only the title of senápati; he was the first of his house who bore the title of mahárája (equal to mahásenápati). The notice about his 'anointment' would seem to refer to his elevation to the higher rank of a Mahárája.

^{*} See Indian Antiquary, Vol. XV, p. 187, noto; also Corpus Inser. Ind., Vol. III, p. 168.

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The special occasion or reason for this elevation by the paramount power we are not told. But putting together the scattered historical indications of that period, it would seem that the distinction was due to a striking recovery in the fortunes of the Imperial Gupta dynasty which was mainly brought about by the exertions of the Valabhi feudatories. The circumstances are these. There are three inscriptions at Eran in Eastern Málava,* referring themselves respectively to the times of Budhagupta, Toramána and Bhánugupta. gupta and Bhánugupta were mere second rate rulers of Eastern Málava; but Toramána possessed Eastern Málava as a portion of his imperial dominions; and his inscription is dated in the first year of his imperial power, It may be concluded, that in that year neither Budhagupta nor Bhánugupta possessed Eastern Málava. The dates of the inscriptions of these two Mahárájas are 484 A. D. and 510 A. D. The first year of Toramána cannot well fall after 510 A.D.; for it can be shown‡ that Toramána was already succeeded by his son Mihirakula c. A. D. 515, and possibly even a little earlier. Again it cannot fall before 484 A. D., because in that year there were living two princes Mátrivishnu and his younger brother Dhanyavishnu, the former of whom was dead in the first year of Toramána. Nor can it fall before 494 A. D., because that is the last recorded date (on his coins) of Budhagupta. It follows that not only the first year of Toramána's imperial power, but also his loss of that power (so far, at least, as Eastern Málava was concerned) must fall within the period A. D. 494-510. Now this is just about the period of the Senápati Bhatárka, the first of the Valabhi dynasty, who must have ruled from c. 495-515 A. D. With regard to him it is expressly stated, in the Valabhi genealogical records, § that he fought with and defeated the "Maitrakas," that is, the Mihiras (a tribal designation of the Húnas) to whom Toramana belonged. It may be concluded, therefore, that it was mainly owing to the Valabhi victories that Toramána was beaten back and lost his imperial power. The immediate consequence of this success of the Valabhis would naturally have been the revival of the imperial power of the Guptas, that is, of Narasimhagupta who was on the throng of the Guptas at that time. The first year of Toramána, say A. D. 495, would be the date of

^{*} See Fleet, Corp. Inscr. Ind., Vol. III, pp. 88, 91, 158.

⁺ See Flect, ibid., Vol. III, p. 158. The first year, named in the inscription, is not the first year of Toramána's accession to rule over the Húna tribe, but of his assumption of the imperial dignity (mahárájádhirája) after his Indian conquests. See Fleet, ibid., Introd., pp. 10-12.

¹ See Fleet, ibid., Vol. III, Introd., p. 12; also Indian Antiquary, Vol. XV, р. 252.

[§] See Fleet, ibid., Vol. III, p. 167.

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the temporary subjection of the emperor Narasimhagupta, and of the assumption of the imperial dignity by Toramána; and A. D. 510 may be taken as approximately the date of the liberation, by the Valabhí senápati Bhatárka, of Narasimhagupta and the resumption by the latter of the imperial crown. And I would suggest, that the subsequent elevation, by Narasimhagupta, of the Valabhí Dronasimha, c. A. D. 520, to the rank of Mahárája, was in some way an acknowledgment of the signal service rendered by the Valabhi family to the imperial house of the Guptas. Toramána must have died soon after the great reverse he suffered at the hands of the Valabhis. He was succeeded, c. A. D. 515, by his son Mihirakula, who undertook to recover his father's conquests, or, as Hiuen Tsiang puts it in his account, "to punish the rebellion" of Narasimhagupta. For fifteen years, as shown by the Gwalior inscription,* he was successful. in his operations, till at last, c. A. D. 530, he was totally defeated by the emperor Narasimhagupta's great vassal Yasodharman. According to Hiuen Tsiang, Mihirakula was taken prisoner in the battle and brought to Narasimhagupta. On the advice of the latter's mother, he was restored to liberty, but finding his chances in India utterly gone, he retired to Kashmir. This seems to me to have been the course of events in that troubled period of the irruption of the Húnas into India.†

I should like to throw out another suggestion. In the list of kings of the Rájataranginí, there are five reigns enumerated between Matrigupta and Durlabha I., if we omit the fabulous king Ranáditya with his reign of 300 years. Durlabha I.'s accession may be placed in 626 A. D., allowing a probable adjustment of 30 years in the calculations of the Rájataranginí.‡ Calculating a reign at the usual average of about 18 years, we obtain for the accession of Mátrigupta about the year 530 A. D., i. e., the probable year of Mihirakula's retirement into Kashmir. I would suggest the identity of Mátrigupta and Mihirakula. There are many points in favour of the suggestion: 1, the epochs of the two kings coincide; 2, the name Mátrigupta means "protected by the mother," and according to Hinen Tsiang, Mihirakula owed his life to the intercession and protection of (Narasimhagupta) Báláditya's mother; the name, therefore, would fit him admirably; 3, Mátrigupta is said to have

- * See Fleet, Corpus Inscr. Ind., Vol. III, p. 161.
- † It may be worth noting in connection with the irruption of the Huns into India in the 5th century, that it followed, by nearly a century, their irruption into Europe. The latter is said to have begun in 375 A. D., under their leader Balamir, and it was most successful under their leader Attila, A. D. 445-453. Their power was finally broken in the great battle on the Catalaunian fields, A. D. 451; corresponding to the great victory of Yasodharman (or Yasovarman) in A. D. 530.
- ‡ See Sir A. Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, p. 92; also Jacobi in Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen for 1888, No. 2, p. 70.

been a stranger to Kashmir; so was Mihirakula; he is said to have been imposed on Kashmir by a king Vikramáditya, also called Harsha, of Ujjain, who is said to have been a powerful king who subdued the whole world and destroyed the Sakas, a Mlechchha tribe. This I take to be a confused version of the fact, that during the time of Narasimhagupta Báláditya, who afterwards allowed Mihirakula to proceed to Kashmir, the Hina (a Saka tribe) were defeated by Yasovarman, who afterwards made himself an "emperor." Vikramáditya was a common title in the Gupta family; Chandragupta II. and Skandagupta bore it; and the similar title Kramáditya was born by Skandagupta and Kumáragupta II. In the Rájatarangini either Báláditya or Kumáragupta II. Kramáditya is referred to by Vikramáditya; and this Vikramaditya is said to have died before Matrigupta's resignation of his kingdom. As Mátrigupta is said to have resigned after a reign of about four years, and as on the assumption of his identity with Mihirakula, he became king of Kashmir about A. D. 530, Báláditya must have died very soon after that year. According to the Rájatarangini, Vikramáditva had a son, Pratápasíla S'iláditya, who was expelled by the people of Málava, but reinstated by king Pravarasena of Kashmír. Here, again, there is a confused version of certain facts. I take this Siladitya to be identical with the king Siláditya of Málava, who, according to Hiuen Tsiang, had lived 60 years before his own time, and who had reigned for 50 years.* As Hiuen Tsiang was in Málava in A. D. 640, the period of S'iladitya's reign is fixed as from about A. D. 530-580. He is commonly identified with the unnamed 'monarch' who is, by Hiuen Tsiang. said to have succeeded Vikramáditya of Srávastí; and this Vikramáditya himself is commonly identified with the Vikramáditya of Málava, above According to Hinen Tsiang, Vikramáditya "lost his mentioned. kingdom" and was succeeded by the unnamed "monarch", i. e., by I would suggest that Kumáragnpta II. Kramáditya is intended by Vikramáditya, who lost his kingdom by the usurpation of Yasodharman; and that Siladitya is one of the surnames of Yaso-The latter, in his inscription (see above) is called, at first, only a narádhipati, which would agree with the "monarch" of Hiuen Tsiang. The times also agree; Yasodharman Siladitya must have usurped the imperial dignity soon after A. D. 530. He would then have reigned about 50 years, down to about A. D. 580. Throughout the whole of his reign (compare columns 5 and 8 of the synchronistic table), he had rivals for his claim of the imperial dignity in the Maukhari Varmans, till the dignity was finally secured by Prabhákara Vardhana who had

^{*} See Boal's Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. III, p. 261.

[†] See ibidem, Vol. I, pp. 106, 108.

the surname of Pratápasíla. According to Hiuen Tsiang the Valabhí king Dhruvasena II. (or Dhruvapata),* who became king about A. D. 625, was his nephew (i. c., probably sister's son). All this agrees well enough. That Vikramáditya (i. e., Kumáragupta II.) is described as "king of S'rávasti" need be no difficulty. Kumáragupta's scal was found at Bhitarí, in the Gházípur District of the N.-W. Provinces; and Srávastí may well have been the favourite residence of that emperor. Of course, if my suggestions are accepted, the narrative in the Rájatarangini is a confused, and even grotesque, perversion of the real facts. Síláditva is said to have been a son of Vikramáditva: this is a confused reminiscence of the fact, that Báláditya (i. e., Narasimhagupta) bad a son Kumáragupta II. Kramáditya; -Síláditya is sald to have been expelled by the people of Málava; but it was Kumáragupta that was "expelled," i. e., rebelled against by Yasodharman (Siliditya); -Siliditya is called Pratápasíla; but the latter was the surname of S'iláditya's rival, Prabhákara Vardhana; -Síláditya Pratápasíla is said to have been seven times subdued by the king of Kashmir; very possibly the king of Kashmir had to carry on several campaigns against both Siláditya (Yasodharman) and Pratápasila (Prabhákara Vardhana), both of whom aspired to be "emperors" or "rulers of the whole world." The Rájatarangini's account of Matrigupta is still more grotesque. It makes Matrigupta to be a poor "poet," and finally resign his kingdom and retire to Benares, like a good Hindú! But it hardly needs an excuse for charging the "history" of the Rajatarangini with grotesqueness. The utter untrustworthiness of it down to the time of the Karkota dynasty (Durlabha Vardhana I.), is, I believe, now generally acknowledged. Its treatment of Milirakula, who under that name is placed at B. C. 707,‡ and of Toramána and Hiranyakula, is the most glaring evidence of it. I add a sketch of what seems to me to have been the fortunes of the

I add a sketch of what seems to me to have been the fortunes of the imperial dignity during the periods immediately before and after the Húna troubles. I have shown them in the synchronistic table by printing in red the names of those princes that bore the imperial title of Mahárájádhirája. From Chandragupta I. down to Kumáragupta II., e. A. D. 360-533, the imperial dignity remained with the house of the Early Guptas. Under Narasimhagupta, c. A. D. 495, it was disputed by the Húna chief Toramána. About 533 A. D., under Kumáragupta II., it passed away to Yaśodharman. From him, it passed, for a period of four

^{*} See ibid., Vol. II, p. 267.

[†] Perhaps a confusion with the poet Mentha (or Matrimontha?) who is said to have lived at his court.

[‡] See Shanker P. Pandit's Gaüdavaho, Introd., p. lxxv.

[§] Evidence of Yasodharman's or Yasovarman's imperial power are his coins

reigns, from c. A. D. 540 to 585, to the Maukharí dynasty, under I'sánavarman, Sarvavarman, Susthitavarman and Avantivarman. Three of these Varmans, I'sána, Sarva and Avanti, receive the imperial titles, mahárájádhirája or parameśvara in two inscriptions.* Susthita is named in an inscription of the Later Guptas without any particular title;† but if he is not identical with Avantivarman—which is quite possible—, he must, in all probability, have been a Mahárájádhirája, as the intermediate ruler between two Mahárájádhirájas (see column 8). That Susthita does not receive that title in the Gupta inscription is no objection; for neither does I'sána receive it; the inscription, being one of the Later Guptas, who were a rival family, probably denied the imperial title to the Maukharís as usurpers.‡

From the Maukharis the imperial dignity passed to the Vardhana dynasty of Thanesar and Kanauj, for three reigns, under Prabhákara, Rájya and the great Harsha, from c. A. D. 585 to 648, though at some time between A. D. 613 and 634 it was disputed by the Early Chalukya king Pulikeśin II.§ After Harsha Vardhana the imperial dignity appears to have been held simultaneously in the West by the Valabhis of Gujarát (commencing with Dharasena IV., c. A. D. 645) and in the East by the Later Guptas of Magadha (commencing with Adityasena, c. A. D. 648). In the case of the Valabhis, the assumption of the imperial dignity would seem, at first, to have been a temporary one. For after Dharasena IV., who enjoyed it from c. A. D. 645-650, it lapsed again, for about 20 years, during the two following reigns of Dhruvasena III. and Kharagraha II., neither of whom seem to have borne any imperial titles, perhaps owing to the rival emperor's, Kdityasena's, ascendancy. About A. D. 670, however, Siladitya III. again became emperor of the West; and henceforth the imperial dignity remained with these two

with the legend of kida (see Proceedings for August, 1888). Kida would appear to be a tribal designation of the Hunas.

- * See Fleet, in Corp. Inser. Ind , Vol. III, pp. 218, 221.
 - † See ibid., p. 206.
- ‡ It may be a question whether Yaéovarman or Yaéodharman did not himself belong to a branch of the Maukhari family of Varmans. There is nothing in Yaéodharman's inscriptions to prove that he belonged to the Málava tribes. His relation to the four imperial Maukharis requires further elucidation. If, as above suggested, he is identical with the S'íláditya, who according to Hiuen Tsiang reigned 50 years, he must have been a contemporary and rival of the four imperial Maukharis. The contemporary inscription of Asphad would certainly seem to show, that the latter did not enjoy an undisputed title to the imperial dignity.
- § He assumed the imperial title paramesvara after a thorough defeat of Harsha Vardhana; see Indian Antiquary, Vol. VII, p. 164. He had not done so before A. D. 613, nor was it after A. D. 634; see ibid., Vol. VIII, p. 240.

dynastics of the Later Guptas and the Valabhis, apparently, till their respective extinction. Perhaps the coincidence of Jivita Gupta II., the last of the Later Imperial Guptas, with the Nepalese king Siva Deva II., who assumed the imperial titles, may have a deeper significance. For it may be noted, that about A. D. 648, at the time of the disruption of Harsha's empire, the Nepalese king, Amsuvarman, also laid claim to the imperial dignity in the North.

The Devagupta, placed in the third column of the synchronistic table, under the Later Guptas of Málava, is mentioned in the copper-plate grant of Harshavardhana,* as having been conquered by that king's brother and predecessor, Rájyavardhana II. He cannot be the Devagupta of the Later Gupta dynasty of Magadha '(2nd column), as Harshavardhana himself was a contemporary of Mádhavagupta, the grandfather of that Devagupta. Moreover it is distinctly stated in the Harsha-charita of Bína, that the prince whom Rájyavardhana conquered, was a king of Málava.†

In the seventh column of the Uchchakalpa Mahárájas it will be seen, that Sarvanátha reigned up to A. D. 533. His line, including himself, consists of six members; and the founder of the line, Oghadeva, was married to a queen Kumáradeví. Six reigns at an average of 18 years, would make Oghadeva (c. A. D. 425-445) a contemporary of Kumáragupta I. of the Early Gupta dynasty. It appears, probable, therefore, that Oghadeva's queen, Kumáradeví, was a sister or daughter of Kumáragupta I.‡

- * See Epigraphia Indica, Part II, p. 74.
- † See Sh. P. Pandit's edition of the Gaudwaho, Introd., p. exxx.

1 Mr. Fleet in the Corpus Inser. Ind., Introd. pp. 9, 10, suggests that the Uchchakalpa dates may have to be referred to the Kalachuri era. I do not understand how this could well be. Mr. Fleet says: "if the Uchchakalpa dates were referred to the Kalachuri era, with General Cunningham's epoch of A. D. 219-50, S'arvanátha's latest date, the year 214, would be equivalent to A. D. 163-64, or Gupta Samvat 114; and we should have to add on twenty-one years at the end of his known period, in order to make him the contemporary of Hastin in Gupta Samvat 165." But the crucial year appears to me to be not Gupta Samvat 165, but Gupta Samvat 189 (see ibid., p. 110). For the joint-grant of Hastin and S'arvanátha was issued in the latter year It follows, therefore, that we should have to add on, not twenty-one, but forty-five years; or if the anoch of the Kalachuri era be A. D. 218-49, even forty-six years. On the other hand, if the Kalachuri epoch be placed, as Mr. Fleet suggests, about 25 years later, let us say at A. D. 273-74 (i. e., 248-49+25), then S'arvanátha's latest date 214 Kalachuri Samvat will be equivalent to 168 Gupta Samvat; and in that case we should have to add on twenty-one years, in order to make S'arvanátha contemporary with Hastin in the year 189 Gupta Samvat. I assume, that when Mr. Fleet (ibid., p. 111) says: "the choice lies only between Gupta Samvat 189 and 201," he means, that the only two years within the known period of Hastin's rule

The question may arise whether the Kumáragupta referred to in the Mandasor stone inscription of Bandhuvarman,* may not be the Kumáragupta II. of the Bhitarí scal, rather than the Kumáragupta I., the only Gupta emperor of that name hitherto known. If it be KumáraguptaII., the three Varmans, Nara, Viśva and Bandhu, would have to be brought down nearly a century, so that Bandhuyarman would be the immediate predecessor of Yasodharman (or Yasovarman). I am disposed to think, however, that it is really Kumáragupta I. who is referred to in that inscription.

The metal of the seal has been tested by Dr. Scully of the Calcutta Mint. His analysis shows that it consists of

Copper	•••	62.970	per cent.
Silver	•••	36.225	,,
Gold		0.405	,,
Iron		trace) .

In spite of its whitish grey colour, therefore, it is rather a copper than a

The weight and dimensions of the scal have been determined by the

(1. e., between G. S. 156 and 191 or A. D. 475 and 510), with which the data of the joint-grant (i. e., the 19th day of the month Karttika, in the Maha-Magha Samvatsara) can be made to harmonise, are G. S. 189 and 201 or A. D. 508 and 520. If this is so, the date of the joint-grant is practically certain: it is either A. D. 508-9 or A. D. 520-21, whether these years be stated in terms of the Gupta Samvat (189 or 201) or in terms of the Kalachuri Samvat (260 and 272). Upon these premises, there are these two alternatives: firstly, if we accept the year A. D. 248-49 (or 219-50) as the Kalachuri epoch, the known period of S'arvanátha begins with Kalachuri Samvat 193, equivalent to A. D. 441-42, and he must have reigned not less than 67 years, to bring him down to A. D. 508 (= K. S. 260 or G. S. 189) to join Hastin in the issue of the grant; and he must have reigned even 79 years, to bring him down to A. D. 520 (= K. S. 272 or G. S. 201), if the latter be the year of the joint-grant. Neither of these two cases will be considered admissible Secondly, if, as Mr. Floet suggests, the Kalachuri epoch be placed about 25 years later, say A. D. 473-74, the beginning of S'arvanátha's known period will be A. D. 466-67, and he must have reigned either 42 or 54 years, according as we place the joint-grant in A. D. 508 or in A. D. 520. Either of these two latter cases is possible, especially the former, requiring a rule of (at least) 42 years. But there is no real ovidence whatever for the assignment of the Kalachuri epoch to the year A. D. 473-74 or thereabouts. The result is, that the probability of the Uchebakulpa grants being dated in years of the Kalachuri era appears to be nil. My premises may be founded on a misunderstanding; if so, Mr Fleet will be able to explain the real facts of the case. But I thought it well to state my doubts, which may have occurred to others beside myself.

* See Fleet, in Corpus Inscr. Ind., Vol. III, p. 79.

1889.] A. F. R. Hoernle-Inscribed Seal of Kumára Gupta II. 105 same gentleman. The weight is 10,696 grains. The measurements are: Greatest length 5.74 inches. Greatest breadth ... 4.63 ... Breadth of rim ••• 0.223 ... Height of rim above surface of plate ... 0.11 ,, Thickness of seal (including rim) ... 0.39

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JOURNAL

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ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL.

Part I.-HISTORY, LITERATURE, &c.

No. III.—1889.

Greco-Roman Influence on the Civilization of Ancient India.—By VINCENT A. Smith, Benjal Civil Service. (With several Plates.)

Section I. INTRODUCTION.

When the wearied veteraus of "the great Emathian conquoror", laden with plunder and sated with conquest, refused to cross the Hyphasis and to try the fortune of war in the valley of the Ganges, the exclusive, conservative East won a victory over the intruding, progressive West, which must have appeared to the actors on the scene as final and decisive.

But it was neither final nor decisive, for, though the obstacles opposed by hostile man and nature could stop the onward march of the Macedonian phalanx, nothing could arrest the sure and world-wide progress of the ideas and culture, which constituted the real strength of Hellas and were but rudely expressed by the disciplined array of Alexander's armies.

India has not willingly sought the treasures of foreign wisdom, and, guarded by her encircling seas and mountains, she has tried, throughout the long course of ages, to work out her own salvation. She has tried, but has not succeeded. Again and again, both before and after Alexander, the barriers have been broken through, and her children, who would

fain believe that all light comes from the east, have been compelled to admit the rays of the western sun.

In the dim mist of prehistoric ages we can discern faint indications that India, in common with all regions of Asiatic and European civilization, drew supplies from those stores of Egyptian, Assyrian and Babylonian antique lore, which were, so far as we know or probably ever can know, the ultimate sources of the knowledge which distinguishes civilized man from the savage.

The history of those long past times is lost, and, save perhaps in some faintly sketched and dubious outlines, can never be recovered.

The Indian expedition of Alexander the Great in B. C. 327—326 was, so far as our definite knowledge extends, the first occasion of close, conscious contact between East and West. The arms of the conqueror, it is true, rubdued no more than a mere corner of India, and that only for a moment, but the Hellenic culture, to the diffusion of which Alexander devoted attention, as great as that bestowed by him on his material conquests, long survived his transitory empire in Asia, and, even in secluded India, made its presence felt in many and different directions.

I shall not attempt to penetrate the thick darkness which conceals the relations between India and the western world in the ages before Alexander, but propose to consider the kind and degree of post-Alexandrian influence on the ancient civilfzation of India, and to invite my readers' attention to an obscure and little known chapter in the everinteresting history of Greek ideas.

The working of these ideas on Indian soil, although discernible in the fields of religion, poetry, science and philosophy, is most obvious in the domain of architecture and plastic art, and I shall devote the greater part of this essay to the consideration of Indo-Hellenic architecture and sculpture.

No Indian example in stone either of architecture or sculpture, earlier than the reign of Aśoka (circa B. C. 260—223), has yet been discovered, and the well-known theory of Mr. Fergusson, that the sudden introduction of the use of stone instead of wood for the purposes both of architecture and sculpture in India was the result of communication between the empire of Alexander and his successors, and that of the Mauryan dynasty of Chandra Gupta and Aśoka, is, in my opinion, certainly correct. The change from wood to stone indubitably took place, and no other explanation has over been suggested.

I shall not, however, now discuss Mr. Fergusson's theory, but shall proceed to examine particular cases of undoubted and incontestable Hellenistic, including Roman, influence on the Indian development of the arts of architecture and sculpture.

A brief discussion of the more prominent effects of the contact between the Græco-Roman and Indian civilizations on other departments of human activity in India will follow, and will enable the reader to form a conception as a whole of the impression made by the West upon the East during a period of seven or eight centuries. That impression was not sufficiently deep to stamp Indian art, literature and science with an obviously European character, although it was much deeper than is commonly supposed.

Section II. INDO-HELLENIC ARCHITECTURE.

The style of architecture, appropriately named Indo-Persian by Sir Alexander Cunningham, and obviously derived from that employed in the Achaemenian palaces of Susa and Persepolis, was extensively used throughout Northern and Western India for several centuries both before and after the Christian era. With this style of western, though not Hellenic, origin the history of Indian architecture begins. It would be more strictly accurate to say that with this style the history of Indian architectural decoration begins, for no buildings in it exist, and we know its character only from pillars and miniature representations in sculptured reliefs.

The pillars are characterized by "a bell-shaped lower capital, surmounted by an upper member formed of recumbent animals, back to back."* The series of examples in Northern India, of pillars more or less fully corresponding to this definition, begins with the monoliths of Aśoka (circa B. C. 250), and ends with the pillar of Budha Gupta at Eran in the Ságar District of the Central Provinces, which bears an inscription dated in the year A. D. 485.† The caves of Western India offer examples apparently rather later, and specimens of intermediate dates have been found at Bhárhut, Buddha Gayá, Sánchi, Bedsá, and Mathurá, as well as in the Gándhára or Yúsufzai country. But there is no evidence as yet forthcoming that Indo-Persian pillars were used structurally in Gándhára. In miniature, as architectural decorations, they were a favourite ornament in that region.

The Indo-Persian pillar underwent gradual modifications in India Proper, with which I am not at present concerned. On the north-west frontier of India, that is to say, in the western districts of the Panjáb, in the valley of the Kábul River, including Gándhára or the Yúsufzai country, and in Káshmír, it was supplanted by pillars imitated from

- * Cunningham, Archeol. Rep., Vol. V, p. 185. [For a convenient synopsis of specimen pillars of the Porsian, Indo-Persian, Indo-Hellenic (Corinthian) and Indo-Doric styles, see ibid., Plates XXVII, and XLV to L. Ed.]
- † All the Gupta dates are determined in Mr. Fleet's work on the Gupta Incriptions, Corpus Inscrip. Indicarum, Vol. III.

Greek models. Isolated examples of Indo-Hellenic pillars probably existed in other regions also, associated with the specimens of Hellenized sculpture which occur at Mathurá and some other localities remote from the Panjáb frontier, but, as yet, none such have been discovered, and, speaking generally, the Hydaspes or Jhelam river may be assigned as the eastern boundary of Indo-Hellenic architectural forms.

The evidence does not, to my mind, warrant the use of the term "Indo-Grecian styles of architecture," which is employed by Sir A. Cunningham. So far as I can perceive, the published plans of Indian buildings show no distinct traces of Greek ideas, and there is no evidence of the employment of the characteristic Greek pediment or entablatures. The known facts prove only that the Indians used, in buildings planned after their own fashion, pillars copied, with modifications, from Greek prototypes.

In the outlying province of Káshmír and the dependent region of the Salt Range a modified form of the Doric pillar was employed. The earliest example of the use of this form is found in the temple of the sun at Mártand, which was erected not earlier than A. D. 400, and perhaps should be dated two or three centuries later. Temples in a style similar to that of Martand appear to have continued to be erected in Káshmír down to the time of the Muhammadan conquest of the They are characterized by trefoiled arches, and pyramidal roofs, and were frequently, if not always, built in the centre of shallow tanks. These peculiarities are in no wise Greek. The pillars undoubtedly, as Sir A. Cunningham observes, resemble the Grecian Doric in "the great ovolo of the capital, and in the hollow flutes of the shaft." It is difficult to believe that the agreement in these respects between the Greek and Indian work is accidental, but it is also difficult to imagine the existence of a channel through which the Kashmirians borrowed the Doric form of pillar at a time when every other manifestation of Hellenic ideas had already disappeared, or was on the point of disappearing, from India.

I cannot venture to deny the Greek origin of the semi-Doric pillars of the temples in Káshmír, although I am not satisfied that it is fully established. Even if it be admitted, the admission is hardly sufficient to warrant the assertion that the Kashmirian buildings are examples of an Indo-Doric style. The most that can be correctly affirmed is, that these buildings contain pillars which may fairly be described as Indo-Doric. These Indo-Doric pillars, if there be indeed anything Doric about them, are never associated with Indo-Hellenic sculpture, or anything else which gives the slightest indication of Greek influence. The Káshmír style stands apart, and the study of it throws little light either on the history of Indian architecture, or on that of the diffusion of Greek ideas. I shall, therefore, exclude it from consideration, and

refer readers who may care for further information on the subject to the discussion of it by Mr. Forgusson and Sir A. Cunningham, and to the fine series of plates prepared under the supervision of Major Cole.*

But, whether the pillars of the Káshmír temples be really derived from Doric prototypes or not, there is no doubt whatever that pillars, the designs of which are modifications of the Ionic and Corinthian types, were common on the north-west frontier of India during the early centuries of the Christian era.

These Greek architectural forms have as yet been found only in a very limited area, which may be conveniently referred to under the name of Gándhára.†

The boundaries of the kingdom of Gándhára, as it existed in ancient times, are known with approximate accuracy. Hinen Tsiang, who travelled between A. D. 629 and 645, describes the kingdom as extending about 166 miles (1000 li) from east to west, and 133 miles (800 li) from north to south, with the Indus as its eastern boundary. The great city of Purushapura, now known as Pesháwar, was then the capital.‡ The earlier Chinese traveller, Fa Hian (A. D. 400—405), assigns the same position to the kingdom of Gándhára, though he describes its boundaries with less particularity.§

The region referred to by both Chinese pilgrims may be described in general terms as the lower valley of the Kábul river. It is very nearly identical with the territory to the north-east of Pesháwar, now inhabited by the Afghán clan, known as the Yúsufzai or Sons of Joseph, which comprises the independent hilly districts of Swát and Buhner, as well as the plain bounded on the east by the Indus, on the north by the hills, and on the south and west respectively by the Kábul and Swát rivers. This plain, which is attached to the Pesháwar District, and administered by British officers, corresponds to the tract known to the Greeks as Peukeloaitis (Sanskrit Pushkaláwatí), the capital of which occupied the site of the modern Hashtnagar, eighteen miles north of Pesháwar.

- * Major Colo's book is entitled Illustrations of Ancient Buildings in Káshmír, (London, India Museum, 1869). His plates are good, but his remarks on the dates of the buildings illustrated would have been better omitted. Mr. Fergusson discusses the style in his History-of Indian and Eastern Architecture. Sir A. Cupningham described it in the Journal, Asiatic Society, Bongal, for 1848, and recurs to the subject in Archaeol. Reps., Vol. V, pp. 84-90, Plates XXVI, XXVII; Vol. XIV, p. 35, Pl. XV.
- + Sanskrit authority warrants either a long or short vowel in the first syllable of the name.
 - ‡ Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. I, p. 97.
 - § Fa Hian, Travels, Chapter X, in either Boal's or Legge's translation.
- || Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. V, p. 1. Hashtnagar is described ibid., Vol. II, p. 90, and Vol. XIX, pp. 96—110.

Strictly speaking, therefore, the name Gándhára is applicable only to a small territory west of the Indus.

But the great city of Taxila, (Takkhasilá, or Takshasilá, the modern Sháh kí Dherí), situated three marches, or about thirty miles, east of the Indus, was undoubtedly, in the time of Alexander the Great, the chief city on the north-western frontier of India, and must have been then, as it subsequently was in the reigns of Asoka and Kanishka, included in the dominions of the government which ruled Gándhára. Kanishka is expressly called the king of Gándhára.*

The vast Buddhist religious establishments at Mánikyála, about thirty miles south-east of Taxila, belonged to the same jurisdiction, and at both places remains are found of that Indo-Hellenic school of art, which attained its chief development in Gándhára west of the Indus. The name of Gándhára, as indicating an artistic and architectural province, may, therefore, be extended, as it was by Mr. Fergusson, so as to comprise the modern districts of Pesháwar and Ráwalpindí, including Taxila and Mánikyála, as far east as the Hydaspes or Jhelam river. When speaking of the art of Gándhára I must be understood as employing the name in its wider sense.

The upper valley of the Kábul river was full of Buddhist buildings, many of which have been explored by Masson and others, and was included in the dominions of Kanishka and his successors. But, so far as the published accounts show, this region was only slightly affected by Hellenic influences, and it must, for the present at all events, be considered as outside the artistic province of Gándhára.

The Gándhára territory, the situation of which has thus been defined, was the principal seat of Hellenic culture in India, and from one or other part of it nearly all the known examples of Indo-Hellenic art in its most characteristic forms have been obtained. Traces of Greek and Roman teaching may be detected in the remains at many localities in northern and western India, but nowhere with such distinctness as in the lower valley of the Kábul river. The Gándhára school of art obviously deserves, though it has not yet obtained, a place in the general history of Greek architecture and sculpture, and this cannot be said of the other early Indian schools.

At Bhárhut, Sánchi, Buddha Gayá, Ajantá, and Amarávatí proofs may be given that the local style of art was modified by contact with

* A full account of the ruins of Taxila will be found in Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. II, pp. 112, seqq; Vol. V, pp. 66, seqq., and Vol. XIV, pp. 9, seqq. Fa Hian states that Dharma Vardhana (or Vivardhana, as Dr. Legge writes the name), son of Aśoka, ruled in Gándhára, and, according to another legend, the stúpa in memory of Aśoka's son Kunála was situated south-east of Taxila, (Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. II, p. 149.)

that of the western world, but the evidence does not lie upon the surface. In the remains of the buildings and sculptures of Gándhára the merest tyro can perceive at a glance that the style of art is in the main Greek or Roman, not Indian.*

- * The principal references to published notices of the Gándhára school of art are as follows:—
- (1) Notes on some sculptures found in the District of Pesháwar. By E. C. Bayley. With several rude lithographs. (Journal As. Soc., Bengal, Vol. XXI (1852), pp. 606-621). The sculptures described in this paper were collected at Jamálgarhí by Messrs. Lumsden and Stokes, and were destroyed by the fire at the Crystal Palace.
 - (2) Indian Antiquary, (Bombay), Vol. III, pp. 143, 159.
 - (3) History of Indian and Eastern Architecture. By James Forgasson.
- (4) Reports of the Archwological Survey of India, Vol. V. By Sir A. Cunningham. Volume II of the same series gives information concerning Taxila. See also Vol. XIV, p. 31, Pl. XIV.
- (5) Descriptive List of the Principal Buddhist Sculptures in the Lahora Museum, p. 11. This list, kindly supplied to me by the Curator, contains brief particulars of 95 specimens, of which 32 are marked with an astorisk, as being either "in exceptionally good preservation, or interesting from their subjects." The list is signed by Sir A. Cunningham, but is not dated. Two specimens are noted as coming from Sahri Bahlol, and one is stated to have been obtained in the fortress of Ránígat, but no other indication is given of the localities from which the sculptures were obtained.

I have not been able to procure a "Memorandum by Mr. Baden-Powell on the sculptures in the Lahore Museum," which is referred to by Sir A. Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. V, p. 55, note 1.

- (6) Catalogue and Handbook of the Archwological Collections in the Indian Museum. By John Anderson, M. D., F. R. S., etc. Part I, Calentta, 1883. 201 Indo-Hellenic objects are described, ciz., 177 arranged under the heading Gándhára, 18 under Posháwar, two ander Mathurá, and one each under Hazára, Kábul, miscellaneous, and Bihár.
- (7) Memorandum on Ancient Monuments in Eusufzai (sic). By Major Cole; being part of the Second Report of the Curator of Ancient Monuments in India, pp. CXIV, seqq. This document was separately reprinted at the Government Central Branch Press, Simla, 1883. It is illustrated by rough lithographic plates, comprising all the subjects subsequently treated by the heliogravure process, as well as by a map of the Yúsufzai country, and eleven other plans and sketches.
- (8) Preservation of National Monuments, India, Graco-Buddhist Sculptures from Yúsufzai. By Major H. H. Cole, R. E. Published by order of the Governor-General in Council for the office of Curator of Ancient Monuments in India, Largo folio, p. 7, with 30 very fine heliogravure plates, 1885.
- (9) The Buddhist Stúpas of Amarávatí and Jaggayapeta. By James Burgess, C. I. E., etc., Archeological Survey of Southern India. Trübner, Loudon, 1887. This work does not describe the sculptures, but some good specimens of them are figured in woodcuts Nos. 1, 4, 11, 14, 21, 23, 24, and 26, which are copied from the illustrated edition of Sir E. Arnold's Light of Asia.
 - (10) Alt- und Neu-Indische Kunstgegenstände aus Professor Leitners jüngster

No indication of a knowledge of the Doric order of architecture can be detected in the remains of the buildings of Gándhára. With two exceptions, the only Greek architectural form used is a modification of the Corinthian pillar and pillaster.

The two exceptions both occur to the east of the Indus, outside the limits of Gándhára proper.

On the site of Taxila Sir A. Cunningham disinterred the remains of a Buddhist temple, the portice of which was supported on four massive sandstone pillars of the Ionic order. Similar, though smaller, pillars were found in the interior of the building. No part of the larger pillars was discovered, except their bases. The mouldings of these bases are said to correspond exactly with those of the pure Attic base, as seen in the Erechtheum at Athens, the only difference being the greater projection of the fillet below the upper torus in the Indian example.

Portions of the shafts and capitals of the smaller pillars were found. The shafts are circular in section and plain. The capitals were made of nodular limestone, and appear to have been plastered and gilded. They agree generally in form with Greek, not Roman, models, but are ruder and more primitive in style, and are specially distinguished from all

Sammlung, ausgestellt in K. K. Österr. Museum für Kunst und Industrie, Stubenring 5. Verlag des K. K. Österr. Museum's Wien, 1883.

The specimens of the Gandhara school of art preserved in museums are very numerous. The principal collection is that in the Lahore Museum. It is very extensive, numbering many hundred objects, but seems to be badly arranged. I have not seen it. The collection next in importance is that in the Indian Museum, Calcutta. Dr. Anderson's carefully compiled Catalogue gives a good idea of its contents. Major Cole intended to send spare specimens to the museums at Bombuy, Madras, and some other places, which were, I suppose, sont.

In London the best collection, though not an extensive one, is that which occupies cases Nos 1—7 in the Asiatic Saloon of the British Museum. The South Kensington collection is officially described as comprising 24 sculptures in stone, and 49 plaster casts from originals in the Lahoro Museum, presented by Sir R. Egerton in 1882. When 1 examined the specimens in 1888, they were exhibited partly in a glass case, partly on a detached screen, and the rest on a wall screen. Dr. Leitner's collection at Woking comprises some original sculptures and a considerable number of casts from the works in the Lahoro Museum. It is described in the printed Catalogue above cited.

The Museum at Vienna contains some specimens presented by Dr. Leitner, and many examples of the work of the school are believed to exist in private hands both in Europe and India. Sir A. Cunningham possesses a valuable series of photographs of the more remarkable sculptures. Mr. Kipling, Curator of the Lahore Museum, informs me that he intends to arrange for the publication of a set of photographs of Indo-Hellenic art. The specimens in the possession of Mr. L. White King, B. C. S. will be noticed subsequently.

known Greek examples by the excessive weight and height of the abacus.*

The employment of stucco to conceal the roughness of the limestone and to facilitate the execution of the moulding reminds us of the temple of Fortuna Virilis at Rome, where the same expedient was used to complete the decorative work on Ionic capitals made of rugged travertine.

Sir A. Cunningham subsequently discovered among the ruins of Taxila in another temple the bases and portions of the drums of two Ionic pillars, differing slightly in detail from those above described.

These two buildings are the only known examples of the use of the Ionic form of pillar in India.

The rude style of the capitals in the building first discovered—the only ones yet found—might suggest the fancy that the Taxilan temples preserve specimens of the primitive Ionic order in its Asiatic form, before it was developed by Greek skill. But the evidence of the comparatively late date of the temple adorned by these rude capitals is too clear to allow indulgence in such a notion. The building cannot, apparently, be earlier than B. C. 20 or 30, the approximate date of king Azes, twelve of whose coins were lifted out by Sir A. Cunningham with his own hand from their undisturbed resting place below the floor of the sanctum, and under the corner of a platform which had supported a number of plaster Buddhist statues. The date of the temple may therefore be assigned roughly to the beginning of the Christian era, at which time, it need not be said, the Ionic order had long been fully developed. The question of date will be considered more fully in a later section.

The Taxilan temples with Ionic pillars were, like all the known examples of Indo-Hellenic architecture, dedicated to the service of the Buddhist religion. Sir A. Cunningham gives a plan of the one first discovered, from which it appears that the whole edifice was 91 feet long by 64 feet broad, standing on a platform, which projected about 15 feet beyond the walls on all sides except the east; forming a terrace adorned with plaster statues. It is supposed that this terrace was roofed in as a closer. The entrance was on the east, in the centre of one of the larger sides, through a portice supported on four Ionic columns. This portice led into an entrance hall, $39\frac{1}{2}$ feet long from north to south, by $15\frac{3}{4}$ feet broad from east to west. The sanctum or cella of the temple lay behind this, with a length of 79 feet from north to south,

^{*} Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. II, p. 129; Vol. V, pp. 69, 190.

[†] Burn, Roman Literature and Art, p. 204.

¹ Cunningham, Archaol. Rep., Vol. XIV, p. 9, Pl. VII.

[§] Cunningham, ibid., Vol. V, pp 72, 190.

and a breadth of $23\frac{1}{2}$ feet from east to west. This room, except at the wide doorway, was surrounded by a bench 4 feet $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad, and 2 feet high, which supported plaster statues of Buddha, with his hands either resting on his lap or raised in the attitude of teaching. It is remarkable that the hair of these figures was rendered by the conventional curls, which are so commonly associated in later times with Buddhist and Jain art. Unluckily no drawings or photographs of these plaster figures have been published, and it is impossible to say whether they were coval with the Ionic pillars or not. I should not have expected to find plaster statues at the beginning of the Christian era, and I suspect that the images are of considerably later date than the pillars.

Sir A. Cunningham believes that the roof was constructed mainly of wood, and that the chambers were lighted by windows in the upper part of the walls, which projected above the roof of the surrounding cloister. He conjectures that the four portice pillars "must have been intended to support a vaulted roof presenting a pointed arch gable to the front, as in the smaller chapels across the Indus." A small room, $20 \text{ feet } 1\frac{1}{2} \text{ inch long by } 15\frac{3}{4} \text{ feet broad, communicated with each end of the entrance hall.}$

The reader will not fail to observe that the plan and elevation of this temple have little in common with those of Greek temples.

I agree with Sir A. Cunningham and Mr. Fergusson in regarding the buildings with Ionic pillars at Taxila as the oldest architectural remains yet discovered in the Gándhára province, and I shall subsequently attempt to show that a considerable interval separates them from the numerous edifices characterized by a lavish use of Corinthian pillars and pillasters.

The fact that the Corinthian pillars and pilasters were used, much in the same way as they are in many modern European buildings, for decorative purposes applied to buildings of native design, and not as members of an "order" in the technical sense, is clearly proved by the manner in which Indo-Persian and Indo-Corinthian forms are employed together. No styles can be more diverse than these, and yet the Gándhára architects felt no scruples about employing them both in the one building, or even in the one sculpture. The first plate in Major Cole's set, of beautiful heliogravures affords a good illustration of this purely decorative use of two diverse styles. The subject of the plate is an alto-rilievo of the seated Buddha embellished by numerous minor figures and architectural decorations. The latter chiefly consist of combinations of Indo-Persian pillars with plain "Buddhist railings" and ogee-shaped façades, while the pilasters at the lower corners of the slab have acanthus leaf capitals in the Indo-Corinthian style. This sculpture was probably executed in the third century A. D.

Although there is no reason to suppose that the Gándhára buildings adorned with Corinthian pillars were Greek or Roman in plan or elevation, the remains excavated, especially those at Jamálgarhí, prove that such pillars, both circular and square in section, were used for structural support, as well as for sculptural decoration.

No piece of Corinthian shaft has yet been discovered. The testimony of the sculptures is not conclusive, but, so far as we can judge from the miniature pillars and pilasters in the reliefs, the shafts were plain, not fluted.

The incomplete lower parts of the bases of two structural pillars have been found, and a comparison of their dimensions with those of the pillars in the famous choragic monument of Lysicratos at Athens (B. C. 334) has satisfied Sir A. Cunningham that the Indian examples differ from the Greek standard "solely in giving an inward slope to the perpendicular narrow fillet which separates the scotia and torus.

"In both the Indian examples it will also be observed that the torus, or round projecting moulding, is thickly foliated, like that of most of the Corinthian bases. Of the upper part of the base not even a fragment has yet been found; and the representations in the bas-reliefs do not offer any assistance, as they show only one large and one small torus, separated by an astragal, and altogether want the deeply marked scotia which forms the leading characteristic of the Corinthian base, and which is carefully preserved in both of the full-sized Indian specimens."

The foliation referred to is not found on the bases of the pillars of the monument of Lysicrates, and is, I think, purely Roman decoration. I shall subsequently give reasons for dating the Gándhára pillars between A. D. 250 and 350, and for holding that all the Indian buildings adorned with Corinthian pillars were constructed under the influence of Roman art. The remains of structural Indo-Corinthian capitals, found chiefly at Jamálgarhí and Takht-i-Bahí, are numerous, but unfortunately are never perfect, owing to the brittleness of the clay slate in which they were carved, and to the practice of constructing each capital from many pieces bound together by iron cramps. The lower portion of the larger capitals, some of which measure about three feet in diameter, was made in from two to four pieces; the upper portion always consisted of four segments.

The British Museum possesses some fine examples of these capitals collected by Sir A. Cunningham at Jamálgarhí, and smaller specimens may be seen in the collection at South Kensington. Others are preserved in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, and in the Lahore Museum.*

* Plates XLVII—L of Cunningham's Archwol. Rep., Vol. V, are devoted to the illustration of Indo-Corinthian pillars. The restoration of elephants on the top of a

Sir A. Cunningham, who was unwilling to recognize Roman influence on the art of Gándhára, compares the Indo-Corinthian capitals with those of "the pure Corinthian order of Greece" as follows:—

"The chief points of similarity are :-

1st. The three rows of acanthus leaves, eight in each row, which are arranged round the drum or bell of the capital.

2nd. The broad, but not deep, volutes at the four corners.

3rd. The four pointed abacus with a curved recess in the middle of each side.

The most marked points of difference are the following:-

1st. The wide spread of the abacus, which is equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ heights of the whole capital, that of the Greek examples being little more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ height.

2nd. The retention of the points at the four corners of the abacus, which in all the Greek examples have been cut off.

3rd. The insertion of a fourth row of acanthus leaves which is projected forward to the line joining the horns of the abacus. The abacus is thus formed from a square having a curved recess on each side of the central projection.

4th. The placing of flowers on the abacus which are supported on twisted stems springing from the roots of the volutes. In a single instance fabulous animals are added to the flowers on the horns of the abacus.

5th. The insertion of human figures amongst the acanthus leaves, whose overhanging tufts form canopies for the figures."

I have quoted this passage in full, not because I attach much value to the comparison made in it, but because it gives an authoritative description of the characteristic features of the Indo-Corinthian capitals. Sir A. Cunningham cannot help admitting the resemblance between those specimens which exhibit human figures among the foliage and Roman capitals found in the ruins of the baths of Caracalla, but avoids the natural conclusion, and boldly declares that, if the design for these capitals with human figures was suggested by any earlier works, "the suggestion must have come from the creative Greeks of Ariana, and not from the imitative Romans."* On the other hand, I am fully convinced, as I shall try presently to prove, that the design in question did come "from the imitative Romans," and that the art of Gandhára is essen-

capital shown in Pl. XLVIII is conjectural, and not supported by adequate evidence. Two of the Jamálgarhi capitals are figured in Fergusson's History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, and a rough sketch of one specimen from the same place is given in Indian Antiquary, Vol. III, p. 142.

^{*} Cunningham, Archeol. Rep., Vol. V, pp. 192-194.

tially Roman in style. The Jamálgarhí carvings date, I believe, from about the middle of the third century A. D., and can be usefully compared in detail only with the similar work in contemporary, or nearly contemporary, Roman buildings. It is waste of trouble to make elaborate comparison of their details with those of the monument of Lysicrates, which was creeted about six hundred years previously, but I am not sufficiently acquainted with the minutiae of architectural criticism to pursue the subject further, and must leave to others the task of accurately verifying the various differences and resemblances between the Indo-Corinthian and Romano-Corinthian styles. Probably, however, the task would not justify the labour bestowed upon it. If the Roman origin of the Indo-Corinthian style be admitted, very minute study of variations in detail may be deemed superfluous, great variation in the ombellishment of Corinthian capitals being everywhere allowed and practised.

Section III.

THE GANDHARA OR PESHAWAR SCHOOL OF SCULPTURE DESCRIBED.

A specimen of sculpture, apparently Indo-Hellenic in style, and closely related to the work of the Gándhára school, was discovered at Kábul in 1833,* but the first distinct announcement of the existence of a school of Hellenic art in India was made in 1836 by James Prinsep, the founder of scientific Indian archæology, who published in that year at Calcutta a description, illustrated by rude plates, of the so-called Silenus group procured by Colonel Stacy at Mathurá. This group, though undoubtedly Indo-Hellenic in style, is not the work of the Gándhára school. It will be discussed in the next following section.

The ruins of the monastery at Jamálgarhí, north-east of Pesháwar, were discovered by Sir A. Cunningham in 1848, but he did not publish any account of his discovery till many years later.

The first published account of the Gándhára sculptures is that written by the late Sir E. C. Bayley, who printed in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for the year 1852 an account, illustrated by

* Journal Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. III, p. 362, Pl. XXVI, fig. 1; Anderson's Catalogue, Part I, p. 261 (K. 1). The sculpture is circular, 15½ inches in diameter, and represents the seated meditating Buddha with flames proceeding from his shoulders, and surrounded by subordinate figures. It was discovered in November, 1833, in ruins two miles south-east of the city of Kábul, enclosed in a large and beautifully roofed square masonry cell, "handsomely gilt, and coloured by lapis lazuli, which is found in considerable quantities in the mines of Badakshán, twelve days' journey from Kábul." Lapis lazuli has also been found on the site of Taxila, and at Baoti Pind in the Ráwalpindí District. (Cunningham, Archael. Rep., Vol. II, pp. 117, 141).

the roughest possible sketches, of some remarkable sculptures found at Jamálgarhí. The works, thus imperfectly illustrated, were subsequently brought to England, and exhibited in the Crystal Palace, where they were destroyed by the disastrous fire which also consumed Major Gill's copies of the paintings on the walls and ceilings of the Ajanta caves.

Prinsep's and Bayley's description of the works of Indo-Greek sculptors failed to attract general attention, probably owing to the extreme rudeness of the illustrative plates. Dr. Leitner, who brought to Europe in 1870 a considerable collection of works of art, to which he gave the name of Greeco-Buddhist, is entitled to the credit of being the first to interest the learned world in the existence of a school of Indo-Hellenic architecture and sculpture.

Though the Greek influence on the style of the works exhibited by Dr. Leitner, and on the many similar objects since discovered, is now universally admitted, it is remarkable that, so late as the year 1875, at least one writer of repute denied its existence.

"It has become a fashion recently," wrote the late Mr. W. Vaux, F. R. S., "to extend a Greek influence to districts east of Bactria, for which I venture to think there is really but little evidence. Thus, we are told that certain Buddhistic figures, chiefly in slate, procured by Dr. Leitner and others to the north-east of Pesháwar, exhibit on them manifest traces of Greek art. I am sorry to say that I cannot perceive anything of the kind."*

The Greek influence on the Gándhára sculptures, which Mr. Vaux could not perceive, is so obvious to other critics, that a formal refutation of his ill-founded scepticism would now be superfluous. Professor Curtius has rightly observed that the discoveries of Dr. Leitner, Sir A. Cunningham, and other explorers in the Kábul valley, "open a new page in the history of Greek art."

The new page thus opened has as yet been little read, and I venture to hope that the following description of a few of the most noteworthy examples of Indo-Hellenic art, and discussion of the sources from which it was derived, may attract both classical and Oriental scholars to the further exploration of a field hitherto very imperfectly worked.

The present section will be devoted to the description of some of the more remarkable and characteristic specimens of the work of the

^{*} Numismatic Chronicle, Vol XV, N. S., p. 12, note.

[†] Abhandlung über die Griechische Kunst, as quoted in Dr. Leitner's Catalogue. I believe the paper was published in the Archwologische Zeitung for 1875, but I have not seen it.

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very prolific sculptors belonging to the Gándhára school. The chronology and artistic relations of the school will be separately discussed in a subsequent section; at present I shall refer only very briefly to these topics.

The oldest known example of Indo-Hellenic sculpture in the Panjáb probably is the statuette in purely Greek style of Pallas Athóné, the original of which is in the Lahore Museum. Dr. Leitner has a good cast of this work in his museum at Woking, and Sir A. Cunningham possesses a photograph of it. It is shown in Plate VII.

The attitude of the goddess is that represented on certain coins of Azes, which show her helmeted, standing, facing front, crowning herself with her right hand, and holding in her left hand a spear obliquely across her body. The goddess of the coins carries a shield also on her left arm, but the statuette is imperfect, and the shield has been lost.*

The close relation of this sculpture to the coins of Azes proves that it must be approximately contemporary with that prince, that is to say, that it dates from the beginning of the Christian era, or possibly a few years earlier. It therefore belongs to the same period as do the Ionic pillars of the Taxilan temples. The statuette is said to have been found somewhere in the Yúsufzai country, but the exact locality where it was discovered does not seem to be known.

I shall explain subsequently my reasons for thinking that this statuette of Pallas is a relic of Indo-Hellenic sculpture properly so called, as distinguished from the Indo-Roman school to which all, or almost all, the other examples of Gándhára art belong.

The effigy of the virgin goddess of Athens cannot be certainly connected with any Indian religious system, and we cannot say whether the statuette above described formed part of the decoration of a Buddhist temple or not. But in all probability it did, for every specimen of Indo-Hellenic sculpture from Gándhára, the find spot of which is known, belonged to a Buddhist building of one sort or another.

Most of the sculptures are evidently Buddhist in subject, but some of them, notably the figures supposed to represent kings, deal with secular subjects, though used to decorate edifices consecrated to the service of religion.

* Gardner, Tatalogue of Coins of Greek Kings of Bactria and India, Plate XVIII, 4. Cunningham, in his Descriptive List (No. 21), observes, "The lower right arm, which probably bore the segis with the head of Medusa, has been lost." This remark is evidently erroneous. The goddess on the coins carries, as might be expected, the shield on her left arm, and grasps the spear with her left hand. Her right arm is raised, with the hand to her head, as for the purpose of crowning herself.

Dr. Leitner and Sir A. Cunningham both consider that the most striking piece in the extensive collection at the Lahore Museum is the figure of a throned king, resting his left foot on a footstool, and grasping a spear in his left hand. See Plate VIII. The upper part of the body is naked, the head-dress is rich, and the squarely cut eyes are remarkably prominent. The work is in good preservation, the right arm alone being wanting. The king's attitude is easy, his expression is dignified, and the outlines of his figure are boldly drawn. Small figures, which have been conjectured to represent conquered aborigines, are attached to the right and left. The identity of the attitude of the principal figure of this fine group with the attitude of the Indo-Scythian kings as shown on their coins naturally suggests that the sculpture represents one of seese sovereigns. I do not know where the sculpture was found.*

Sir A. Cunningham found at Jamálgarhí fifteen or sixteen statues, some seated, and some standing, which he supposes to be those of kings, and observes that "these royal statues are known by their moustaches, and the numerous strings of gems worked into their head-dresses. The arrangement of the hair is different in each separate specimen, and, as the features also differ, there seems little doubt that they are portrait statues."†

In the case of one statue in the Lahore Museum, (No 6 of Descripive List, and No. 63 of Dr. Leitner's Catalogue), which Professor Curtius compares with the Greek ideal type of Apollo, the royal character of the person portrayed is unmistakeably indicated by the presence of the regal fillet, the ends of which float loosely behind his head, in the same way as they are shown on the coins of Greek princes both of Europe and Asia.

It is hardly possible that all these so-called royal statues can be intended as ideal representations of Buddha as Prince Siddhartha, before he adopted the religious life, though some of them probably should be so interpreted. Mr. Fergusson suggested that they should be regarded as images of Buddhist saints, and the presence of the nimbus behind the head in many cases supports this suggestion.

The presence or absence of moustaches proves nothing, for Buddha is frequently represented as wearing moustaches in the works of the Gandhara school. If the images in question were portrait statues, as suggested by Sir A. Cunningham, they would probably be inscribed. It seems hardly credible that sculptors would execute numerous portraits of Kanishka and other kings without taking the trouble of indi-

^{*} Cunningham, Descriptive List, No. 2; Leitner, Catalogue, No. 73.

[†] Cunningham, Archael. Rep., Vol. V, pp. 197, 202.

¹ History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 179.



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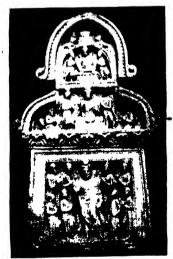


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cating for whom the portraits were intended. I think it more likely that these so-called royal figures are not portraits of individuals, but that they are ideal representations, in some cases of kings, and in some cases of saints.

The museums in London and Calcutta possess several examples of sculptures of this class. Two from the upper monastery at Nuttu are depicted in Major Cole's heliogravure plates Nos. 24 and 25. The statue or statuette shown in the latter plate represents a man of dwarfish figure, standing, as if preaching, with a nimbus behind his head. The legs are thick and badly executed, and the work seems to me to be of comparatively late date, probably subsequent to A. D. 300. This figure, in spite of the ornaments and moustaches, appears intended to represent a preaching saint rather than a king.

The works above described were all, so far as is known, associated with Buddhist buildings, though in themselves not obviously Buddhist in subject. I shall now proceed to describe sculptures, the subjects of which are taken from the rich stores of Buddhist mythology.

The birth-scene of Gautama, or Prince Siddhartha, who in after days won the honourable title of the Buddha, or the Enlightened, is a favourite subject with Buddhist artists, and recurs in their works almost as frequently as representations of the Nativity are met with in Christian art.

Sir A. Cunningham, in the catalogue of sculptures excavated, chiefly at Jamálgarhí, under his supervision, enumerates four examples of this favourite subject, two of which are now in the Indian Museum, (G. 1 and 2).* See Plate IX, fig. 1. Major Cole gives a plate of a tolerably well-preserved specimen discovered at the upper monastery of Nuttu during subsequent explorations in the Yúsufzai country.†

According to Buddhist belief, Máyá Deví, the Buddhist Madonna, was standing under a sál tree, when she gave birth to the holy infant, who sprang from her right side, and was received in a golden net by Brahmá, attended by the devas, or angels. This legend appears to be, like the sculptures which express it, descended from a Greek original. Mr. Beal has pointed out that, in several respects, it closely resembles the Greek myth of the birth of Apollo in Delos.‡

The details of the scene vary considerably in different sculptures, but the traditional grouping of the principal figures is never materially changed. The description of one specimen will, therefore, suffice for all.

- * Dr. Anderson's Catalogue, Part I, pp. 199, 202.
- † Seven examples of soulptures of the nativity of Buddha preserved in the Lahore Museum are enumerated in Cunningham's Descriptive List, which, as usual, gives no indication of the localities where they were discovered.
 - ‡ Indian Antiquary, Vol. IX, p. 68.

On the slab photographed by Major Cole (Plate 11) Máyá is shown, standing, facing the spectator, with her head slightly inclined, and the weight of her body thrown on the right foot. Her left leg is crossed in front, with the toes resting lightly on the ground. In her right hand she grasps a branch of the over-shadowing tree, and her left arm is thrown round the neck of her half-sister Prajápatí, who supports her. The figure of the sister is turned in a singularly awkward posture, so as to show most of her back.* The infant Buddha, springing with outstretched arms from his mother's side, is recognizable, though much mutilated; the figure of Brahmá is almost completely destroyed. The other attendants, who are introduced in some examples, are here wanting. A harp in the upper corner of the composition indicates the heavenly music which heralded the advent of him whose mission it was to still the discords of millions of human hearts.

In this work the pose of Máyá is tolerably graceful, her figure is free from the usual Indian exaggeration, and her expression, in conformity with the belief that the Buddha cost his mother none of the pangs of travail, is perfectly calm. Her hair is richly braided, and arranged in the form of a crown or tiara.

A very finely executed statuette of Máyá Deví, standing alone, which was obtained at the same monastery, (Cole, Plate 15, figure 2), shows her in nearly the same attitude as in the birth scene, holding above her head the branch of a conventional tree, more or less resembling a palm.

The drapery of this figure is specially elegant. The principal garment is a tunic (chiton) reaching to the knees, and confined at the waist, by a rich girdle of four strings, adorned with clasp and vine-leaf pendant. A scarf is thrown lightly over the shoulders, and the legs are clad in loosely fitting trousers of thin material. The dress of Máyá in the nativity group is simpler, and consists of an inner tunic or vest, and a robe wound gracefully round the body, and looped up at the waist.

Single figures like that above described are not uncommon. The slight variations in different examples indicate that they were arranged in pairs.†

Religious artists found in the deathbed of Buddha a subject scarcely less fascinating than the scene of his birth.‡

- * See post, for a parallel from the Catacombs.
- † So, at Cave XX, Ajantá. "Cave XX is a small Vihára with two pillars and two pilasters in front of the verandah. One pillar is broken, but on each side of the capitals there is a pretty statuette of a female under a canopy of foliage." (Burgess, Notes on the Bauddha Rock-Temples of Ajantá, being No. 9, Archael. Survey of W. India, Bombay, 1879). This valuable book is out of print.
- ‡ The Descriptive List mentions only one example of this subject in the Lahore Muscum, but the collection there probably includes other specimens. The Indian

According to the Buddhist scriptures, he passed away at the age of eighty, surrounded by his chief disciples, shaded by the sál trees in a grove at a place called Kusinagara, which has been fully identified as the modern Kasiá in the Gorakhpur District of the North-Western Provinces.*

All representations of the scene agree in showing the master lying on his right side, in a posture of perfect repose, with his head resting on his hand. The number of attendants varies in different sculptures. Plates Nos. 16 and 22 of Major Cole's volume give illustrations of two well-preserved reliefs, obtained respectively at the upper and lower monasteries of Nuttu, which vividly depict the peaceful departure of the great teacher from this troublous world.

The work from the upper monastery (Plate 16) is a sculptured panel bounded by two good examples of the Indo-Corinthian pilaster.

The dying master, fully robed, reclines on a low bedstead furnished with mattress and pillow, by the side of which a tripod is placed, supporting a vessel of cool water. A figure, identified as Devadatta, the malignant consin, who had pursued Buddha throughout his life with unrelenting hostility, stands at the head of the couch, with an evil expression of satisfied malice.†

A form, apparently that of a female, with her back to the spectator, sits cronching on the ground, and six mourning attendants in various attitudes complete the group. Above the whole hang the boughs of the sál tree, the forest king which witnessed alike the advent and departure of the teacher.

The work from the lower Nuttu monastery, reproduced in Plate No. 22, represents the same scene, though with considerable variation in the treatment of details. In this group the total number of figures is increased to thirteen, the most remarkable addition being that of a shaven-headed monk, crawling on hands and feet, and being pulled from under the bed by another monk, who has grasped him by the wrist.

Museum, Calcutta, contains at least one (G. 27). In later Buddhist art, as seen at Kasiá and elsewhere, the subject was frequently treated. The death-bed scene has often been incorrectly referred to as the Nirvána of Buddha, but the term parinarvána may be correctly applied to it.

- * Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. I, pp. 76-85; XVIII, p. 55.
- † The figure is that of a man holding a dumb-bell-shaped object, like a club or conventional thunderbolt, and this figure in other reliefs, for example, in that representing the scene of the clephant doing homage, must certainly be identified as Devadatta. But the appearance of Devadatta at the death-bed of Buddha appears to be inconsistent with the legend referred to in Fa-hian's Travels, which relates that Devadatta attempted to poison Gautama, and having failed to accomplish the crime, "went down to hell."

Both the compositions above described are admirably balanced, and the attitudes and expressions of all the persons concerned are rendered with vigour and truth to nature. The drapery, as usual, is Greek, or Graco-Roman, in style.

The design of these death-bed scenes is certainly an importation from the west. The recumbent figure on the bed surrounded by morning attendants is clearly copied from Greek banqueting reliefs of a sepulchral character, as imitated on Roman sarcophagi. A sculpture in the Towneloy collection in the British Museum bears a very close resemblance to the reliefs from the Nuttu manastery above described.* I have no doubt that the Gándhára sculptures were copied from Græco-Roman, and not pure Greek, models.

The figure of the founder of their religion was the decorative element most largely used by the Buddhist artists in all their works, with the exception of the earliest buildings in Bihár, Central, and Western India, where symbols occupy the place afterwards taken by images. In the countries on the north-west frontier of India, the image of the personal Buddha had become an object of worship at least as early as the latter part of the first century A. D., when it was stamped on coins of Kanishka.†

There is, therefore, no reason to be surprised at the fact that hundreds of sculptures from Gándhára, in various sizes, represent the seated or standing Buddha, posed in one or other of the conventional attitudes (mudrá), either buried in meditation, or engaged in exhortation. Such figures are often executed in large numbers on the face of a single slab. Multitudes of specimens present the founder of Buddhism engaged with other persons in one or other incident of his ministry or the preparation for it.

A deeply-cut relief, found at the village of Mohammad Nari, and reproduced in the first plate of Major Cole's book, is a good illustration of the oft-repeated figure of the teaching Buddha, who is here shown scated cross-legged on an open lotus-flower, with his feet draped in a gracefully disposed robe. His right shoulder is bare, and his hair is arranged in formal conventional curls, a style which in later times became the only orthodox arrangement for the hair both of Buddhist and Jain statues.

^{*} Engravings from the ancient marbles in the British Museum, Part V, Plate III, fig. 5, London. 1826). In this work the Towneley relief is described as being of Roman origin, but it may be Greek. Prof. Gardner informs me that the Greek works of this class are referred to the period extending from B. C. 300 to A. D. 1.

[†] Gardner, Catalogue of Coins of Greek and Scythic Kings of Bactria and India, pp. 130, 133, 175, Pl. XXVI, 8; XXVII, 2; XXXII, 14.

The central image of the composition, the lotus-throned Buddha, occupies a niche formed by a dentilled cornice resting on Indo-Persian pillars. The rest of the slab is occupied by a profusion of "Buddhist railings" and other architectural details, as well as by a multitude of small human figures, which it would be tedious to describe at length.

The bare right shoulder and formal hair might be supposed to suggest a late date, but the style of the architectural ornaments and the fine execution of the work indicate, in my judgment, that it should be referred to the first half of the third century A. D. I have already noted that this slab is adorned with Indo-Corinthian pilasters as well as Indo-Persian pillars.

One of the most elegant images of the standing, preaching Buddha is the small statuette from the Mián Khán monastery depicted in figure 3 of Major Cole's Plate 27. The expression of the face is sweet and calm, and the drapery is rendered in the best style. Both shoulders are covered, and the hair, coiled in a top-knot, is artistically and truthfully sculptured. This work seems to me to be of earlier date than the Mohammad Nari specimen, and is probably not later than A. D. 200.

The fine sculpture from the upper monastery at Nuttu (Cole, Plate 12) shows Buddha, wearing moustaches, and with both shoulders covered, scated cross-legged on a low stool under a súl tree, addressing a company of adoring disciples of both sexes.

The balanced grouping of this composition is as skilful as that of the death-bed scenes.

The three sculptures above described belong to the best period of the Gándhára school of art.

A statuetto of the seated Buddha, about 13 inches in height, executed in blue slate, is shown in Plate 1X, fig. 2, and is an example of the school in its decadence. A similar statuette was obtained at Ránígat,* and is fairly good work, though not of the best style.

Another statuette of the seated Buddha, found at Shah ki dheri, the ancient Taxila by Mr. L. White King, seems to be of comparatively late date, having a Hindú, rather than a Buddhist appearance.

* The great fortress of Ránígat, (also known by the names of Nográm, or Navagrám, and Bágrám), is situated sixteen miles north of Ohind, and just beyond the British frontier. Tribal feuds render the place difficult of access, and, when Mr. King visited it, he required the protection of a strong escort. The ruins have, consequently, never been thoroughly explored. Sir A. Cunningham gives weighty reasons for identifying the site with Aornos, the stronghold which resisted Alexander. The surface of the various courtyards is covered with fragments of "statues of all sizes, and in all positions." (Archæol Rep., Vol. II, pp. 96—111; V, p. 55). Major Cole in his Second Report notes the existence of seven topes or ståpus within the limits of the fortress, and gives a rough plan on a very small scale.

The foregoing descriptions prove that during the most flourishing period of Gándhára art, which I assign to the years between A. D. 200 and 350, the conventional representation of Buddha had not been finally determined, and that it was legitimate to make his image either with or without moustaches, and with the right shoulder either bare or draped. The figure of Buddha on the Amarávatí slab No. 11 exhibited on the British Museum staircase has both shoulders draped, but in Buddhist art, as a rule, the founder of the religion is represented with the right shoulder uncovered, and without moustaches.

It has also been shown that the artists of Gándhára were at liberty to give Buddha either the formally curled hair, which in later times, became an indispensable attribute, or to carve his hair artistically in accordance with nature.

The treatment of the hair both of Buddha and other personages in most of the good sculptures from Gándhára is so artistic, and so far superior to the feeble conventionalism of ordinary Indian art, that it may be well to dwell on the subject for a moment.

I agree with Dr. Anderson, in the opinion expressed by him that the woolly hair like that of a negro, arranged in stiff, formal, little curls which is characteristic of the Jain images executed in the tenth and subsequent centuries, and of many Buddhist statues of carlier date, does not indicate, as has been supposed, any racial peculiarity of the Jain and Buddhist saints, but is purely conventional.

Dr. Anderson suggests that this mode of representing the hair is merely an archaistic survival, and that "the hair of the Blessed One having once been carved in this depraved fashion, it was slavishly followed after, with a few exceptions, among which were the sculptors of Gándhára."*

The exact origin of this archaistic treatment of the hair does not at present appear to be traceable, but, whether it be ever discovered or not, it is probable that the explanation suggested above, is, in general terms, the correct one, and that there is no occasion for holding with Mr. Fergusson, that "it has ever been one of the puzzles of Buddhism that the founder of the religion should always have been represented in sculpture with woolly hair like that of a negro." +

As a matter of fact he is not always so represented, nor is the woolly hair peculiar to his images. The puzzle, if it be a puzzle, is one in the history of art, not in the history of religion.

The archaic 'wiry' style of representing the hair was maintained

^{*} Anderson's Catalogue, Part I, p. 259. Cf. ibid., p. 175; and Indian Antiquary, Vol. IX, p. 116.

⁺ Tree and Serpent Worship, 2nd ed., p. 135.

by Greek artists in bronze longer than in marble,* and this observation may possibly serve as the explanation of the woolly-haired Buddhas, which may be conjectured to have been derived from a bronze prototype.

I cannot venture on trying the patience of my readers by describing even a few of the many friezes and panels which vividly present incidents of Buddha's life and preaching, such as his visits to ascetics and Nága kings, and his miraculous escapes from the snares laid by Devadatta. The compositions are like most Roman work, generally crowded with figures, which it would be tedious to describe in detail. Good illustrations of several are given in Major Cole's Plates.

A blue slate panel, about 13 inches in height, representing in high relief a *chaitya* front filled with small figures of Buddha and worshippers, the original of which is in the Lahore Museum, a cast being in Calcutta, is reproduced in Plate IX, fig. 3, and is a fair example of a very numerous class of works.

The sculptors of Gándhára were not restricted in their choice of religious subjects to the birth, death, meditation, miracles, and preaching of Gautama.

At the time when they flourished, Buddhist literature had attained vast dimensions, and offered, in the collections of Játakus, or Birthstories relating to the adventures of the Buddha in his previous births, an inexhaustible treasury of subjects for the art of the painter and the sculptor.

That subjects of this class frequently formed the theme of the Greece-Buddhist artists can be perceived from the mutilated extant fragments of their compositions, though the brittleness of the stone in which their works were generally executed is such that few of the innumerable friezes which decorated the buildings of Gándhára have been preserved in a condition sufficiently perfect to permit of their story being clearly, read.

The best preserved connected series of story-telling sculptures is that which adorned the risers of the sixteen steps leading to the central stúpa of the monastery at Jamálgarhí, excavated by Lieut. Crompton and Sir A. Cunningham.

- * Perry, Greek and Roman Sculpture, p. 351.
- † Lieutenant Crompton's report has not, so far as I am aware, been printed in full. Its substance is given in the Indian Antiquary, Vol. III, p. 143. The friezes of the risers are the only sculptures found in their original position at Jamálgarhí. All the others had been thrown down, and "in many cases large and heavy fragments of the same sculpture were found far apart." Lient. Crompton hence concluded that the buildings had been "destroyed by design, and not by natural decay." Sir A. Cunningham's catalogue of the sculptures of the risers arranged in the order of the steps is given in Archwol. Rep., Vol. V, p. 199.

These reliefs excited the warm admiration of Mr. Fergusson, and are certainly deserving of high praise.* Unfortunately they are far from complete. The surviving portions, however, are of considerable extent, and are available for study in Cases 1—3 of the Asiatic Saloon in the British Museum. The arrangement in the museum is arbitrary, and determined rather by the dimensions of the cases than by the order of the steps, or the subject of the sculptures.

When first discovered the series was more nearly perfect, and the discoverer was able to recognize two Játakas or Birth-stories, the Wessantara and the Sáma.

The latter may be read pretty clearly from the remains in the British Museum (Cases 1-3, tier No. 4). The recognizable scenes are briefly described by Sir A. Cunningham as follows:—

- "1.—The young lad, son of blind parents, filling a vessel with water from a lake frequented by deer.
- 2.—The youth, shot accidentally by the Rájá of Benares, who aimed at the deer, is lying on the ground with an arrow sticking in his side.
- 3.—The Rajá in a pensive attitude, his head resting on his hand, promises to take care of the lad's parents.
 - 4.—The Rájá presents a vessel of water to the blind parents.
- 5.—The Raja leads the two blind people by the hand to the spot where their child's body is lying.
 - 6.-The youth restored to life."

This story occupied the eighth step of the staircase. The Wessantara Játaka, which adorned the fourth step, is exhibited on the fifth tier from the top of the British Museum arrangement.

The extremely small scale of these sculptures, which are only about eight inches high, interferes with the correct proportional rendering of the several parts. The trees, for instance, are altogether out of scale. But, when allowance is made for this defect, which is unavoidable in the execution of complicated designs crowded into a space so limited, these reliefs may rightly be held to deserve much praise for their vigour of execution, and for their realistic fidelity to nature.

An exhaustive description of the various scenes and multitudinous figures in the alti-relievi of the Jamálgarhí staircase would task too severely the patience of the most conscientious reader, but a brief discussion of some of their more interesting features may not be unwelcome.

The uppermost tier in the museum arrangement comprises ten small panels, divided one from the other by broad Corinthian pilasters.

^{*} History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 173.

Six of these panels, (from the third step of the staircase), are occupied by female busts with the arms raised, and having acanthus leaves extended like wings from the waist on each side. These little figures at once remind the spectator of the angels with which he is familiar in Christian art. It is quite possible that the sculptors of Gándhára may have picked up some hints from artists connected with the churches of Asia Minor and Syria, and I have a suspicion that they did so, though I cannot offer any decisive proof of the supposed fact. I have no doubt that a real connection exists between early Christian art and the Gándhára school. The four remaining panels (from the fifteenth step) contain each a grotesque bust terminating in two scaly tails.

Above these panels nine remarkable Atlantean statuettes are exhibited, which form, apparently, part of a set of twenty-three obtained at Jamálgarhí by Sir A. Cunningham. He supposes that they "filled the spaces between the large dentils which supported the heavy mouldings of the stúpas,"* or, as he elsewhere expresses himself, that "they were arranged in rows to support the lowermost moulding of a building. The figures were generally separated by pilasters." † '

Numbers of similar figures have been found. Most commonly they are about eight inches high, but they vary in height from four to eighteen inches.

The British Museum specimens range in height from about seven to nine inches. All the figures are in a sitting posture, though the attitude varies. One figure crouches like Atlas, as if oppressed under the burden of a heavy load, while the attitudes of the others seem to express repose rather than the endurance of crushing pressure. Some of the faces are bearded, and some are not. The facial expression is freely varied, and rendered with great spirit and vigour. The muscles of the chest and abdomen are fully and truthfully displayed, with a tendency to exaggeration, and a pair of expanded wings is attached to the shoulders of each statuette.

A group of wrestlers (G. 82 Calcutta), and a composition (G. 89 Calcutta), catalogued by Sir A. Cunningham as "Herakles fighting with a snake-legged giaut," both of which were found at Jamálgarhí, are executed in the same style. The latter work (Plate IX, fig. 4) is

^{*} Archwol. Rep., Vol. V, p. 198.

[†] Descriptive List, p. 2.

[†] Descriptive List, and Indian Antiquary, Vol. III, p. 144 Sixteen statuettes of this class are in the Calcutta Museum (G. 81 and 83). A feeble terracetta imitation of the design has been found far away eastward in the Bogra (Bagrahá) District of Lower Bengal. (Mn., 1, in Anderson's Catalogue).

thus described by Dr. Anderson in his Catalogue (Part I, p. 240):—
"A triangular fragment, with two figures in relief, one lying on the ground with its back towards the spectator, the upper portion being the body of a human being, but the legs terminate from the hips downward in two snake-like coils; the other figure, which is quite nude, has grasped the end of the left coil with his right hand, while with his left hand he has seized the head of the monster, which swings a heavy club to destroy his foe."

I think that it is impossible to doubt that the group last described is a Buddhist adaptation of the Greek myth of the Gigantomachia, the battle of the gods and giants, which continued for centuries to be a favourite subject of Greek and Roman sculptors and gem-engravers. In Greek and Roman art the giants are represented as winged, and snake-legged, and their figures are generally characterized by exaggerated development of the muscles.

No Indian example appears to reproduce exactly the conventional form of the Greek giant, but the characteristics of that form are all found in the Jamálgarhí carvings, though not all combined in a single figure.

The action of the group which Sir A. Cunningham rather rashly entitles "Herakles fighting with a snake-legged giant" is obviously the same as that of the Greek representations of the Gigantomachia, and the very peculiar conception of the snake-legged giant cannot have been independently invented by the Jamálgarhí sculptors. In this case the wings seem to be wanting, but the Atlantean statuettes, which have not the snake legs, are fitted with wings, and display the exaggerated muscular development of the pattern Greek giant. The little figures with tails, from the fifteenth step, appear related rather to the Tritous than the Giants. Their tails seem to be intended rather for those of fishes than to represent snakes.

The Gigantomachia was so frequently the subject of Greek and Roman works of art that it is impossible to name the precise channel by which a knowledge of it reached India. One of the finest examples of the treatment of the subject is the principal frieze of the great altar of Pergamon, the giants of which are winged, snake-legged, and provided with enormously developed muscles.* It is quite possible that the fame of this great composition may have spread through Asia, and stimulated the imitative faculties of a host of minor artists, including those of Gándhára, but the Gigantomachia was such a hackneyed subject that we cannot venture to name any particular example of its

^{*} Casts of the Pergamene frieze are at South Kensington. Engravings of it will be found in many recent books, e. g. Perry's History of Greek and Roman Sculpture.

treatment as the model of the miniature, and comparatively feeble, adaptations of it by the Indian sculptors. The influence of Rome on the sculptures at Jamálgarhí, and the other works of the Gándhára school, belonging to the same period, is so strongly marked that the most probable conclusion is that the Indians derived their knowledge of the artistic use of the Gigantomachia from Roman copies of Greek works.

I strongly suspect that the Indians borrowed from the Greeks the giants themselves as well as the sculptured representations of their battles. The Asuras of Hindú post-Vedic mythology are described as fierce demons, enemies of the gods, and correspond closely with the Greek giants. Recent research has proved, or at lêast rendered probable, the existence of so much Greek, and even Christian, influence on the development of Hindú mythology that the borrowing of the conception of giants, enemies of the gods, offers no improbability.

Whether the Buddhist sculptors of the Kábul valley intended their snake-legged or winged monsters to be images of Asuras, or merely used them as conventional imitative decoration I cannot undertake to determine.

A group, frequently recurring in Gándhára art, of which four examples have been photographed by Major Cole (Plates 1, 2, 4, and 17), and one is in the Woking Museum, can be demonstrated to be an adaptation of a famous composition by a known Greek artist. Another of the ultimate Greek sources from which the sculptors of Gándhára derived their inspiration is thus determined with certainty. I shall discuss this case with some fulness of detail.

The group referred to represents a plump young woman, fully draped, standing, held in the grasp of an eagle with expanded wings, and is reasonably conjectured to represent the translation to heaven of Máyá Deví, the mother of Buddha, in order that she might be born again, as related in the Buddhist scriptures. However this may be, it is quite impossible to doubt the correctness of Sir A. Canningham's opinion, as quoted by Major Cole, that the composition in question is an adaptation of the Rape of Ganymede, a favourite subject of the later Greek artists, and of their Roman imitators.

The bronze work on this theme by Leochares (B. C. 372-330) was considered a masterpiece of that famous artist of the later Attic school, and was praised with enthusiasm by Pliny.

The original has unfortunately perished, but several copies or imitations of it, belonging to various periods, some executed in marble, and some engraved on gens, are extant, and have been figured in many well-known works on the history of art.

One of the marble copies is in the British Museum, another is at Thessalonica, a third at Venice, and a fourth, the finest of all, is preserved in the Museo Pio Clementino at the Vatican.*

In this composition, which most nearly corresponds with Pliny's description of the original, the eagle is represented as supported by the trunk of a tree behind it, with its wings expanded, and neck stretched upwards, and grasping firmly, though tenderly, in its talons the beautiful youth, whose feet have just ceased to touch the receding earth. The robe of Ganymede is dexterously disposed behind his back so as to protect his body from the sharp claws of the great bird, and yet to exhibit the full beauty of the nude figure. A dog, seated below, howls piteously for his departing master.

Critics point out that the addition of the dog to this group, and the insertion of the tree, are not only in accordance with the myth as related by Virgil,† but are of artistic importance as an aid to the imagination by rendering more perceptible the soaring movement of the principal figures, and thus minimizing the objections to a plastic presentation of a pictorial subject.

The Buddhist adaptations omit the dog, 'and in this respect agree' with the groups preserved at Venice, Thessalonica, and in the British Museum, but, in the pose of the eagle, and the introduction of the trunk of the tree, they resemble the Vatican group more closely than any other.

Three of the examples of these adaptations figured by Major Cole (Plates 2, 3, and 4) were found in the ruins at Sanghao. His fourth example (Plate 17) was obtained at the upper monastery of Nuttu, which is situated close to Sanghao. The Sanghao specimens figured in Plates 3 and 4 are duplicates, whereas the Nuttu specimen agrees with the Sanghao sculpture illustrated in Plate 2.‡

- * Overbeck (Mythologie der Kunst) has pointed out that the extant Rape of Ganymede groups fall into two distinct classes. The first represents the eagle as the messenger of Zens; the 'second presents the god himself transformed into the shape of an eagle. The Vatican group is the best example of the first and earlier, the Venetian sculpture is the best example of the second and later type. Engravings of the Vatican group will be found in Visconti's Musco Pio-Clementino, Vol. 111, p. 149, and in the histories of sculpture by Winckelmann, Lübke, and Perry. A figure of the Venetian specimen is given in Zanetti's work on San Marco. The Thessalonican group is described and engraved in Stuart's Athens, III, ch. 9, Pl. II and IX. The Indian adaptations seem to combine the characteristics of both types.
 - † "Puer quem præpes ab Ida

Sublimem pedibus rapuit Jovis armiger uncis;

Longævi palmas nequidquam ad sidera tendunt

Custodes, savitque canum latratus in auras." (Æneid, V, 252-257).

‡ Major Cole says that Sir A. Cunningham found an example of the woman and eagle subject in a knob or plume of a royal statue at Jamálgarhí, which is now

Both the Buddhist variations show a general agreement with one another, though differing considerably in detail. The posture of Máyá in the specimens figured in Plates 2 and 17 is singularly ungraceful and constrained. As some compensation for this defect her feet are so treated as to suggest the notion that she is really being lifted from the ground, and in this respect these examples are superior to the other two, which altogether fail to convey the idea of upward motion. In both varieties the female figure is fully draped.

The substitution of a fat, round-checked, young Indian woman, swathed in heavy drapory, for the nude form of Ganymede instinct with the beauty of Greek youth, destroys all the æsthetic value of the composition, which is, in its Buddhist forms, devoid of life or elegance, and far inferior to the worst Græco-Roman example. The conversion of a Greek theme to their own uses by the Gándhára sculptors is more readily demonstrated in the case of the Rape of Ganymede than in any other, but, unfortunately for their reputation, they were less successful in dealing with this subject than almost any other which they attempted. Probably it would be correct to say that a purely ideal subject was beyond their powers.

A very curious panel in the Lahore Museum, of which a cast is exhibited at South Keusington, has been differently interpreted by Sir A. Cunningham and Dr. Leitner.

The former describes it as a "portion of a large sculpture, containing eleven figures. The three lower ones are soldiers armed with spears and shields; but the rest, with their animal's heads, large months, and sharp teeth, are probably intended for demons. As such they may have formed part of the army which Mára brought to frighten Buddha during his ascetic meditation under the Bodhi tree." (Descriptive List, 538.)

The three soldiers in the lower compartment, marching one behind the other, are certainly not Indian in style or equipment. They are Greek, not Roman warriors. Two of them carry long oval shields, the shield of the third differs in shape, having a rectangular body, and circular head, with narrow neck. Sir A. Cunningham's conjecture as to the meaning of the composition fails to explain the presence of these soldiers.

Dr. Leither, who has seen Buddhist masquerade processions in Ladákh, informs me that he regards the monstrous forms in the upper part of the panel as intended to represent the masks of the Vices in a

in the Calcutta Museum, but the Catalogue does not mention any such specimen. G. 40, a sculpture ten inches high, seems to deal with the same subject, although Dr. Auderson does not recognize it. So large an object can hardly have formed part of a knob or plume.

procession of Vices and Virtues, and that the soldiers may be interpreted as the escort. In his Catalogue he gives a somewhat different explanation.

Whatever be the correct interpretation of this strange composition, it is certainly one of the best, and presumably among the carliest, works of the Gándhára school. All the figures are well executed, and the aged and monstrous heads in the upper compartment are carved with great eleverness and spirit. It probably, like the Athéné, belongs to the pre-Roman period.

Inasmuch as my object in this paper is not the publication of an exhaustive monograph on the Gándhára school of sculpture, but the presentation of a general view of the modes of Greec-Roman influence on India, though with special reference to the Gándhára sculptures, I shall not proceed further in the detailed description of works from the Kábul valley, which deal with subjects obviously belonging to the domain of Buddhist mythology.

Certain decorative elements, which are not peculiar to the Gándhára school, but also occur in the earlier sculptures at Bhárhut and Buddha Gayá in the interior of India, are mythological, but not in themselves, so far as appears, specially connected with Buddhist mythology. I allude to the hippocamps, centaurs, tritons, and various winged and other monsters, which are frequently met with. These forms, which are certainly of Greece-Roman origin, so far as India is concerned, were probably used by the Buddhist artists for purely decorative purposes, without any definite symbolical meaning. Such monsters were common in Greek art, and are supposed especially to characterize the works of the followers of Scopas.

The comic friezes in which boys are shown pulling cattle by the tails, riding on lions, and disporting themselves in sundry fantastic ways, are obviously not Indian in design. Major Cole's plate 26 illustrates a tolerably good specimen from the Mián Khán monastery of such a comic frieze, the figures in which are boys mounted on lions.

The direct model for these works was probably found in Roman art. Their ultimate source is to be traced to the Alexandrian compositions depicting the "erotopegnia (love-sports, amatory poems) of the Auacreontic school, in which Eros becomes a boy, and rides all sorts of wild animals and mousters, lions, panthers, boars, centaurs, hippocamps, dolphins, dogs, and deor."*

Among the remains of the Gándhára sculptor's work an extraordinary abundance of detached human heads, chiefly executed in stucco, is met with.

^{*} Perry, History of Greek and Roman Sculpture, p. 629.

The cases in the British Museum contain a series of about forty such heads, varying from life-size to very small dimensions. Most of these were obtained in the Pesháwar District, and purchased in 1861 through the late Mr. Thomas.* They are as varied in character as in size, and comprise old and young, male and female, serious and comic. Almost all are good, but I was particularly struck by the head, five or six inches in height, of an aged, emaciated, and bearded man, and the very remarkable life-size head of a laughing youth, with large straight nose, big projecting ears, and a curl of hair on his forehead.

Dr. Leitner has a considerable number of similar heads in his collection, and, as he observes, it is impossible not to notice the resemblance between them and the heads found in Cyprus, specimens of which may be seen in the British, South Kensington, and Woking Museums.

The specimens from the Peshawar District, in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, marked P 1—18, are similar, and some particularly good examples of such heads, found in the Mián Khán monastery, are figured in Major Cole's Plate 28.

Two plaster heads of this class are figured in plate IX, fig. 5, a and b. They are about each six inches in height. The head reproduced in fig. a is very Greek in feature, though Indian in ornament. The photograph, in consequence of foreshortening, does not do the face full justice.

The great abundance of such detached stucco heads is probably to be explained, at least in part, by the following observation of Masson, who notes that at the village of Hidda, near Jalálábád in the upper Kábul valley, "idols in great numbers are to be found. They are small, of one and the same kind, about six or eight inches in height, and consist of a strong cast head fixed on a body of earth, whence the heads only can be brought away. They are seated and clothed in folds of drapery, and the hair is woven into rows of curls. The bodies are sometimes painted with red lead, and rarely covered with leaf-gold; they appear to have been interred in apartments, of which fragments are also found."†

Section IV. HELLENISTIC SCULPTURE IN INDIA PROPER.

An exhaustive examination of all the known remains of early Buddhist sculpture which exhibit traces, more or less distinct, of teaching derived from Greek sources would, I fear, be extremely tedious,

- * Information kindly supplied by A. Franks, Esq., F. R. S.
- † Ariana Antiqua, p. 113.

and would certainly extend this paper far beyond the limits to which I desire to confine it. The Hellenistic influence on India Proper was slight, and no site in the interior of India contains the remains of a distinct, well-established Greek, or Græco-Roman, school of art, such as existed in Gándhára. I shall, therefore, content myself with a mere passing reference to most of the Indian cases in which the marks of western art teaching have been detected, and shall describe in detail only a few specially interesting works.

The honeysuckle ornament on the capitals of some of the monoliths of Aśoka (B. C. 250) is the earliest example of a Greek form of decoration applied to Indian work. Mr. Fergusson has suggested that Aśoka borrowed this ornament direct from its Assyrian or Babylonian birthplace, and not from the Greeks,* but, considering the fact that, even in Aśoka's-time, Assyrian and Babylonian art belonged to a distant past, it seems much more natural to suppose that the Ionic honeysuckle ornament was introduced into India from the Greek kingdoms of Asia with which Aśoka was in communication.

I have already alluded to the tritons, hippocamps, and other marine monsters which formed part of the ordinary Greek decorative stock-intrade, and passed into Indian art.

The centaur, another characteristic Greek form, is found among the sculptures at Bhárhut, dating from about B. C. 150, and among those at Buddha Gayá, which are somewhat earlier.

The chariet of the sun, in Indian mythology, is drawn by seven steeds. At Buddha Gayá in Bihár, and again at Bhájá in the Bombay Presidency, we find it represented drawn by four steeds, as in Greek art. Mr. Forgusson also draws attention to the Greek look of "the figure of the spear-bearer" in the Bhájá cave temple. The same writer detects the presence of a distinctly Greek element in the well-known sculptures of Amarávatí on the Krishna river, and such an element may certainly be traced in them, though its presence is not very obvious on casual inspection.

- * Cave Temples, p. 521.
- † For a full descriptive account of the sculptures at Bhárhut, see Sir A. Cunningham's special work on the subject. Centaurs at Buddha Gayá and Bhárhut are described in Anderson's Catalogue, Part I, p. 129, where further references are given.
- ‡ For the Buddha Gayá sun chariot, see Cunningham, Archæol. Rep., Vol. 111, p. 97; Buddha Gayá by Rájendralál Mitra, Plato L; Fergusson and Burgess. Care Temples, p. 521. For the Bhájá example of the same design see Archæol Survey of W. India, Vol. IV, p. 5, Pl. VI.
 - § Cave Temples, p. 521, Pl. XCVI, 5.
 - || See Tree and Serpent Worship, 2nd ed., pp. 106, 172.

The most distinct and conspicuous remains of Indo-Hellenic art in the interior of India are those which have been discovered at the ancient city of Mathurá, situated on the Jamuná about thirty-five miles from Agra.

A group in sandstone, found at or near Mathurá, was described and figured more than fifty years ago by James Prinsep as representing Silenus with his attendants, and a second corresponding, though not identical, group has since been discovered by Mr. Growse in the neighbourhood of the same city.

The block first found is three feet broad, and three feet eight inches high, hollowed on the top into a shallow basin, perfectly smooth, and originally nearly circular, and is sculptured back and front with figures in high relief.

"In the front group the principal figure is a stout, half-naked man, resting on a low seat, with wig or vine-crowned brow, out-stretched arms, which appear to be supported by the figures, male and female, standing one on each side. The dress of the female is certainly not Indian, and is almost as certainly Greek. * * Prinsep agrees with Stacey in considering the principal figure to be Silenus:- 'His portly careass, drunken lassitude, and vine-wreathed forehead, stamp the individual, while the drapery of his attendants pronounce them at least to be foreign to India, whatever may be thought of Silenus' own costume, which is certainly highly orthodox and Brahmanical. If the sculptor were a Greek, his taste had been somewhat tainted by the Indian beau-ideal of female beauty. In other respects his proportions and attitudes are good; nay, superior to any specimen of pure Hindu sculpture we possess; and, considering the object of the group, to support a sacrificial vase (probably of the juice of the grape), it is excellent.' "*

Prinsep's account of the purpose of the block described by him, and his interpretation of the sculptures have both been disputed. I shall not enter into the controversy on the subject, which may be read in the works cited in the note. Personally, I am of opinion, that the drunken man is an Indian adaptation of Silenus.

A third work, much in the same style, and still more obviously

* Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. I, p. 243. Prinsep's original account will be found in Journal As. Soc. of Bengal, Vol. V, (1836), pp. 517, 567, Pl. XXXI. The sculpture described by Prinsep and its subsequently discovered companions are discussed by Mr. Growse, and illustrated by good plates, in the same Journal, Vol. XLIV, Part I (1875), p. 212, Pls XII, XIII, and are further commented on by the same writer in Mathurá, a District Memoir See also Anderson's Catalogue, Part I, pp. 170—176.

Greek in subject and treatment, was discovered in 1882 by Sir A. Cunningham, also at Mathurá, where it served an humble purpose as the side of a cattle-trough. This unique specimen now adorus the Indian Museum, Calcutta. Dr. Anderson's careful, though rather awkwardly worded, description of it is as follows:—

"M. 17 .- A figure of Hercules in alto-rilievo, 2 feet 5 inches high, strangling the Nemoan lion. The latter is represented standing erect on its hind feet, but grasped round the neck by the left arm of Hercules, who is pressing the neck against his shoulder. The right arm of the statuette is broken off, but, as the axilla is exposed, the arm had been represented raised and bent on itself at the elbow, so that the hand had been brought down close to the shoulder, but hidden in the foliage behind the figure, the tree being the same as occurs in the Silenus group. The greater portion of the knotted club is seen behind the right side of the figure. The action, therefore, is not only that of strangling, but of clubbing the lion as well. The head of Hercules has been lost, and the front part also of the head of the lion. He (scil. Hercules) is represented as having worn the skin of an animal over his back, as the front limbs are tied before his chest in a loopknot, the free ends being the paws. The beard of the lion is indicated by parallel pendants, and, on the full rounded left check, there is a somewhat stellate figure with wavy arms, probably a rude Swastika. The fore-limbs of the lion are raised to the front of its neck, grasping the left hand of Hercules, but they are very feebly executed. The general art characters of the figure are essentially Grecian, but, in the attitude in which Hercules is placed towards the lion, and the consequent position of his right arm, it would be extremely difficult to deal any but the most feeble blow. Although there is considerable anatomical accuracy in delineating the position of the various muscles brought into play in Hercules, the lion is devoid of action and badly shaped."*

These Mathurá sculptures have very little in common with those of Gándhára, and seem to be the work of a different school. They have not the Roman impress which is so plainly stamped on the art of Gándhára, and are apparently the result of Greek teaching conveyed through other than Roman channels. It is difficult to fix their date with precision. It cannot well be later than A. D. 300, and the style is not good enough to justify the suggestion of a very early date. Perhaps A. D. 200 may be taken as an approximate date for these works, but at present their chronological position cannot be definitely determined.

^{*} Catalogue, Part I, p. 190.

They are by no means, in my opinion, equal in merit to the best of the Gándhára Indo-Roman sculptures, which I assign to the third century A. D.

The Mathurá group of Herakles and the lion may be contrasted with the widely different representation of the same subject recently found at Quetta in Baláchistán. A much corroded copper or bronze statuette, two and a quarter feet high, discovered at that place, shows the hero standing, and holding under his left arm either the skin or dead body of the slain lion, the right arm being wanting.* This work, to judge from the published plate, has an archaic look, and bears a curiously close resemblance to the colossal figure found at Khorsábád in Assyria, fancifully named Nimrod by Bonomi, and designated the Assyrian Hercules by other writers. "He is represented strangling a young lion, which he presses against his chest with his left arm, while he is clutching in his hand the fore-paw of the animal, which seems convulsed in the agony of his grasp. In his right hand he holds an instrument which we infer to be analogous to the boomerang of the Australians," etc.†

I cannot venture to assign even an approximate date for the Quetta statuette, and can only say that it is certainly an early work.

Section V. THE CHRONOLOGY AND AFFINITIES OF THE GANDHARA OR PESHAWAR SCHOOL OF SCULPTURE.

It is impossible to determine the affinities of a school of art until its chronological position is known at least with approximate accuracy. Apparent resemblances between the works of different schools are apt to be delusive and misleading unless checked by chronological dates independent of the idiosyncrasics of the critic. On the other hand, the style of the works of art, the date of which is in question, is in itself, when used with due caution, an essential element for the determination of the chronology, if conclusive external proof is not forthcoming. In the case of the Gándhára school its chronology and affinities are both still to a large extent undetermined. I shall quote subsequently the divergent judgments of the principal authorities on the subject. For the present I shall confine myself to the examination of the external evidence for the chronology of the Gándhára sculptures. This evidence falls chiefly under three heads, namely, (1) Epigraphic, (2) Numismatic, and (3) the records of the Chinese pilgrims. The pilgrims' testimony, supplemented

^{*} Journal As. Soc. of Bengal, Vol. LVI, p. 163, Pl X.

[†] Bonomi, Nineveh and its Palaces, 2nd ed., p. 163, Plate X.

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by scanty historical data from Indian sources, will be more conveniently dealt with in connection with the internal evidence derived from style. The other two heads may here be considered.

The opigraphic material in the Gándhára region is unfortunately meagre in quantity, and the little that exists gives but a small amount of information.

The local inscriptions, known in 1875, are enumerated by Sir A. Cunningham,* and comprise the following records, namely, from

- (1.) Jamálgarhí. (a) Certain mason's marks:
 - (β) The Indian names of a weekday and a month on a pilaster;
 - (γ) Seven unintelligible letters, read as Saphaë danamukha, incised on the back of the nimbus of one of the statues supposed to be those of kings.
- (2.) Kharkai. (a) Masons' marks;
 - (β) Three characters, read as a, ra, and de, on the sides of a small stone relicchamber.
- (3.) Zeda. Inscription of Kanishka dated in the year 11.
- (4.) Ohind. A fragment dated in the month Chaitra of the year 61.
- (5.) Takht-i-Bahí. Inscription duted in the 26th year of Mahárája Guduphara, in the year 103 of an undetermined era.
- (6.) Panjtár. Inscription of a Mahárája of Gushán or Kushán tribe, dated in the year 122.
- (7.) Saddo. Kushan tribe, dated in the year 122.
- (8.) Sahri-Bahlol. The Indian name of a month on a fragment of pottery.

Inasmuch as Taxila may be included for the purposes of the history of art in Gándhára, the Taxila inscription of the Satrap Liako Kusulako, dated in the 78th year of the great king Moga, should be added to the above list.

I have lately obtained an inscription on the pedestal of a statuette of Buddha dated in the year 274.

All the inscriptions above referred to are in the alphabet variously designated as Arian, Ario or Ariano-Pálí, or Bactrio-Pálí, which is written from right to left, and was employed by Aśoka (B. C. 250) in

^{*} Archeol. Rep., Vol. V, pp. 57-64.

his edict inscription engraved on the rock at Shahbazgarhi (Kapurdagiri) in the Gandhara country. The use of this alphabet never became general in the interior of India, and certainly died out there altogether at an early date, not much subsequent to the Christian cra.

These facts have been utilized by Sir A. Cunningham as an argument for the early date of the Gándhára sculptures, but the argument seems to me devoid of all force. When he wrote his Report the latest known date for an Arian inscription was the year 122, recorded in the Panjtár document, and this date was then believed to refer to the era known by the name of Vikrama, B. C. 57. Sir A. Cunningham, therefore, argued "As no Indian letters have been found on any of them, I conclude that the whole of the sculptures must belong to the two centuries before and after the Christian era, as the Arian characters are known to have fallen into disase about A. D. 100 or a little later."

No one now believes that the Indo-Scythian era is the same as that of Vikrama, and most archaeologists hold, though conclusive proof is still wanting, that the Indo-Scythian inscriptions are dated in the Saka era of A. D. 78. If this correction be applied, Sir A. Cunningham's argament will mean that all the Gándhára sculptures must be prior to A. D. 250.

One premise of this argument has been destroyed by the discovery of an Arian inscription dated 274, equivalent to A. D. 352, if referred to the Saka era. That inscription at the present moment happens to be the latest known, but there is no reason why one still later should not be found. The absence of Indian letters on the Gándhára sculptures simply proves that the Indian alphabet was not used in that part of the country, which fact was known already for an earlier period from the existence of Ašoka's Shálbázgarhí inscription.

The Arian character never took root in India Proper, and its early total disuse there gives no indication as to the date of its disuse in its original home in the countries on the north-west frontier. I should not be surprised, if an Arian inscription dated as late as A. D. 500 should be discovered in Afghanistán or the Western Paujáb.

The Gandhara sculptures can be proved, on other grounds, to be earlier than A. D. 500, up to which date the Arian character may well have continued in use in the country where they occur. The fact, therefore, that the Gandhara inscriptions are all in the Arian character, does not help in any way to fix the date of the sculptures, much less does it prove that they are earlier either than A. D. 100 or A. D. 250.

Among the inscriptions in Sir A. Cunningham's list those from Zeda, Ohind, Takht-i-Bahí, Panjtár, Saddo, and Sahri-Bahlol, are not closely associated with Græco-Buddhist sculptures. The valueless Saddo

fragment inscribed on a rock is the only one among these records found in its original position. These inscriptions consequently give no warrant for the assumption that the Græco-Buddhist sculptures are contemporary with Kanishka or Gondophares, who are mentioned in some of the documents.

The Arian inscriptions at Kharkai and Jamálgarhí are incised on works of the Græco-Buddhist or Gándhára school, but are too fragmentary to be of any use. Sir A. Cunningham wishes to read the characters a, ra, de, on the Kharkai relic-chamber as Arya Deva, the name of a Buddhist patriarch who flourished late in the first century A. D, but this interpretation is purely conjectural, and cannot be admitted.

The result of all the foregoing discussion is the negative conclusion that, with the exception of the image of Buddha dated 274, no epigraphic evidence to prove the date of the Gándhára sculptures has yet been discovered.

This unique dated inscription is of sufficient interest to deserve a particular description. I am indebted to the kindness of Mr. L. White King, B. C. S., for permission to publish it.*

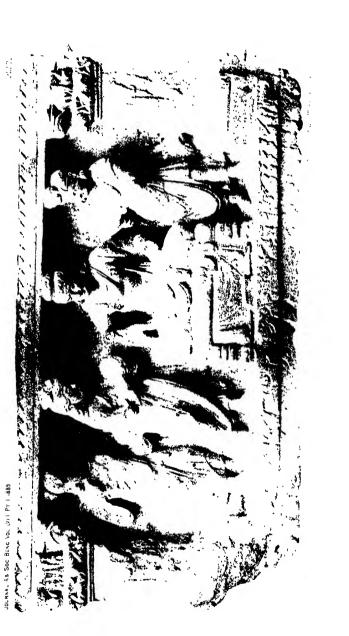
In or about the year 1883, at Hashtnagar, the site of the ancient Pushkalávatí (Peukeloaitis), Mr. King came across a statue of the standing Buddha, which was ignorantly worshipped by the Hindús as an orthodox deity. He could not carry away the statue, but was allowed to remove its inscribed pedestal, a photograph of which is reproduced in Plate X.

The pedestal, like most of the Gándhára sculptures, is composed of blue slate, and is $14\frac{3}{4}$ " long by 8" high. Its front is adorned by an altorilievo, enclosed between two Indo-Corinthian pilasters, and representing Buddha scated, attended by disciples, who seem to be presenting offerings to him.'

An Arian inscription, consisting of a single line of character, deeply and clearly cut, and in great part excellently preserved, occupies a smooth band below the relief. This band was evidently prepared for the inscription, which must have been executed at the same time as the sculpture. The record is incomplete at the end, and the lost portion, which is of very small extent, may have contained the name of the person who dedicated the image.

The extant portion was read by Sir A. Cunningham, for Mr. King, as follows:—

* I have already printed a brief notice of this inscription, accompanied by a lithograph taken from a rubbing, in *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. XVIII, (1889), p. 257. The photograph is now published for the first time.



The main question suggested by this very scanty record is that of the identity of the era referred to.

The locality in which the inscription was found suggests that the date might be expressed either in the era of Gondophares, as used in the Takht-i-Bahí inscription, or the era of the great king Moga referred to in the Taxila record of Liako Kusulako, or in the era, generally identified with the Saka era, which was employed by Kanishka. These are the only three eras, in which Arian inscriptions from the Gándhára region are known to be dated, and it is reasonable to assume, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, that the number 274 refers to one or other of these epochs. The initial point of no one of the three has yet been ascertained, and consequently an exact date for the new inscription cannot be fixed in any case. But the approximate beginnings of all three eras can be determined by numismatic evidence, and one of two approximate dates can be selected for the inscription.

The coins indicate that the eras used both by Moga and Gondophares must have their starting points about the middle of the first century B. C., and, so far as appears at present, the two may have been identical. For the purpose of selecting an approximate date for the inscription they may be treated as one, and as equivalent to the era B. C. 57, known to the later ages as the Vikrama Samvat.*

* Assuming that the Mahárája Guduphara of the Takht-i-Bahí inscription is identical with the sovereign whose name is variously given on coins, in the genitive case, as Undopherrou, Gondopharou, Gudapharasa, Gudaphanasa, and Gudapharasa, or, in the nominative case, as Undophares; and assuming further that all the coins alluded to were struck by one king, then the numismatic evidence indicates that he flourished in the first half of the first century B. C. (See Gardner's Gatalogue of the Coins of the Greek and Scythic Kings, pp. XLIV, 103—108, Plates XXII, XXIII, XXIII, The year 103 of Gondophares would therefore fall about the middle of the first century A. D., and, for rough approximations, his cra may be regarded as identical with that of Vikrama.

Assuming that Moga of the Taxilan inscription is identical with Maues, who is known from coins, his date must be fixed as about 60 or 70 B. C., which, again, is nearly synchronous with the era of Vikrama (See Gardner, pp. XXXIII, XLIX. For the Taxilan inscription see Cunningham, Archwol. Rep., Vol. II, p. 132, Pl. LIX, and Vol. V, p. 67).

I must not, of course, be understood to suggest that as a matter of fact either Moga or Gondophares used the ora afterwards known as the Vikrama Samvat. I use

If then the Hashtnagar inscription is dated in the era either of Moga or Gondophares its approximate date is 274 - 57 = A. D. 214.

Though demonstration that Kanishka used the Saka cra is still wanting, there is no doubt that the era of his inscriptions does not differ, at the most, more than about twenty years from the Saka, and for the present purpose the era of Kanishka may be taken as identical with the Saka, A. D. 78. Assuming that this era was used in the Hashtnagar record, its date is A. D. 352. The alternative approximate dates, therefore, are A. D. 214 and 352.

The style of the Hashtnagar alto-relieve appears to me to be decidedly inferior to that of most of the Mián Khán, Jamálgarhí, Nuttu, and Sanghao sculptures. The figures in it are not undercut, as they are in the best specimens of Græco-Buddhist art, and the execution, on the whole, is poor. So far as I can judge, the work cannot well be older than the middle of the fourth century.

This dubious conclusion is the only assistance given by epigraphic evidence for determining the problem of the age of the Gándhána sculptures.

The numismatic testimony is nearly as scanty and weak as the epigraphic.

The undisturbed hoard of the coins of Azes buried below the Taxila temple with the Ionic pillars indicates, as argued above (p. 115), that that edifice is to be dated from about the beginning of the Christian era, and this inference is in harmony with the reasoning based on considerations of architectural style. It is, as I have already observed, impossible to decide whether the plaster statues found in the Taxilan temple are contemporary with it or not, for no information concerning their style has been published. The coins of Azes found at Taxila, therefore, give no clue to the chronological position of the Gándhára school of sculpture, excepting a few of the earliest works, especially the Pallas, already discussed (p. 121). The only localities, so far as I can ascertain, where coins have been discovered in close association with remains of Greeo-Buddhist, or Romano-Buddhist, sculpture, are Jamálgarhí and Sanghao.

Lieutenant Crompton in his report on excavations at the former site says nothing about coins beyond the unsatisfactory remark that "a few silver and copper coins were turned up;"* but Sir A. Cunningham

the epoch B. C. 57 merely as a short expression for any era which began somewhere about the middle of the first century B. C., and about which more accurate knowledge is wanting. The Arian inscriptions from the Gándhára country have not yet been properly edited, and the published translations are quoted with reserve.

^{*} Indian Antiquary, Vol. III, p. 114.

is a little more explicit, and records that, during the progress of the explorations, eight coins are discovered, seven of which bore the name of Bazo Deo, or Vasu Deva.**

Unfortunately no more particular account of these coins has been published. We do not know either the circumstances of their discovery, or their numismatic type, and consequently can draw no positive inference from the fact that they were found. Coins bearing the name of Bazo Deo or Vasu Deva continued to be struck for a long period, but none of them are earlier than about A. D. 150,† and all we can say is that the discovery of Bazo Deo coins at Jamálgarhí is perfectly consistent with the inferences to be drawn from the style of the sculptures found in that locality, even if it be assumed, which is not proved, that the coins are contemporary with the sculptures. The coins, for all that appears to the contrary, may have been struck in the third century.

The only other locality where the discovery of coins can be held to afford evidence for fixing the chronology of Gándhára sculpture is Sanghao. The discovery is reported by Major Cole, a good explorer and photographer, but a bad archæologist, as follows:—

"The site where the sculptures were dug is perched on a steep spur, and was the first excavation done under my superintendence in January, 1883. The building revealed two distinct periods, and consists of a basement containing small topes, and of a superstructure of plain apartments, built obliquely over the basement, apparently without reference to its plan.

"The sculptures were found in the basement, and belong to the older period; coins of Kanishka, A. D. 80 to 120, were found in the superstructure, and belong to the more modern period."

The Kanishka coins were found along with a brass ring in the socalled 'treasury,' "in earthen ware jars embedded in the floors at the corners A and B," as shown in the plan.§

The sculptures referred to were sent to the Lahore Museum, and form the subject of Plate II of Major Cole's volume of heliogravures.

A coin of Gondophares was also found somewhere in the same group of buildings. Gondophares reigned about A. D. 30, but the mere fact that a coin of his was found at Jamálgarhí would, at the most, prove

^{*} Archæol. Rep., Vol. V, p. 194. The date assigned to Bazo Dec in this passage is admittedly erroneous.

[†] Gardner, Catalogue of Coins of Greek and Scythic Kings, pp. lii, 159-161 Pl. XXIX.

[‡] Cole, Third Report of the Curator of Ancient Monuments in India, for the year 1883-84, p. cx.

[§] Cole, Second Report, for 1882-83, p. cxx, Pl. 3.

^{||} Cole, Third Report, p. cx.

an early occupation of the site. It is no evidence of the date of a particular set of sculptures.

The discovery of coins of Kanishka in the superstructure of the Jamálgarhí monastery, above the basement containing the sculptures, is a much more weighty fact, and undoubtedly seems to warrant Major Cole's inference that the sculptures are earlier than A. D. 100. Nevertheless, I am convinced that the inference is a mistaken one. I fully accept Major Cole's account of what he saw, but it is quite possible that he did not see all that ought to have been observed. He is a strong believer in Sir A. Cunningham's theory of the early date of the Gándhára sculptures, and may, like many other people, have been unconsciously biassed by a prepossession. It is impossible for any one who has not minute local knowledge to check the details of an observation as reported, but, while I cannot pretend to point out the seat of the error, I am fully persuaded that the discovery of the coins in question is not to be explained by the theory that the sculptures photographed are earlier than the reign of Kanishka, but should be interpreted in some other way.

My reasons for thus refusing to accept apparently clear external evidence of date will, I hope, be sufficiently established by the discussion of the internal evidence on which I am about to enter. For the present, it will suffice to say that Major Cole's plate refutes his text. The Sanghao sculptures belong to the same school as those of Nuttu, though they may be a little later, and they bear throughout distinct marks of the influence of Roman art of the third or fourth century. They cannot possibly be anterior to A. D. 100, no matter what coins were found above or below them.

The problem demanding solution may be conveniently stated by placing in juxtaposition and contrast the opinions expressed by the two scholars who have attacked it.

Mr. Fergusson, after giving many reasons, some strong, and some the reverse, for his opinion, came to the conclusion "that, though some of these Gándhára sculptures probably are as early as the first century of the Christian Era, the bulk of them at Jamálgiri, and more especially those at Takht-i-Bahi, are subsequent to the third and fourth [centuries], and that the series extends down to the eighth [century]; till, in fact, the time when Buddhism was obliterated in these countries."*

Sir Alexander Cunningham expresses his views as follows:-

"What I have called the Indo-Grecian style must have been introduced by the Greeks who ruled the country; but the earliest specimens, so far as can be *proved*, belong to the time of Azes, I saw myself twelve

^{*} Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 182.

coins of Azes exhumed from under the temple of Maliár-ki-mora (Sháh-dheri), from which the Indo-Ionic capitals and bases were extracted.

The Indo-Corinthian examples should be equally old, at least all the fine examples. But the oldest that can be proved, belongs to the time of the Antonines, and is certainly older than Constantine."

[Here follow detailed references to the stupus at Minikyala and elsewhere, and to the use of the Arian alphabet, which has been sufficiently discussed above.]

"I would, therefore, ascribe all the greater works, both of sculpture and architecture, to the *flourishing* period of Kushán sway under Kanishka, Huvishka, and Vasu Deva—, or from 80 to 200 A. D.

Doubtless many stupas were erected after A. D. 200; but they were comparatively small, and their decorations rough and coarse."

[Reference is then made to the Sahri Bahlol image, and the Hidda and Baoti Pind topes, which will be discussed subsequently.]

"I notice that none of the sculptured head-dresses show any affinity with Sassanian costume, whereas the coins (Indo-Sassanian) show it unmistakeably, from about the time of Bahrám Gor. From this I infer that the sculptures are older than 400 A. D.

"I believe that the strong Sassanian government from A. D. 230 to 450 formed a very effectual barrier to intercourse between Rome and N.-W. India. Roman geld coins are plentiful down to the time of Severus and Caracalla [A. D. 217]. They then disappear until the time of Justin [A. D. 526], Marcian [A. D. 450], Leo [A. D. 474], and Anastasius." [A. D. 491-518].*

I am not able to agree altogether with either Mr. Fergusson or Sir A. Cunningham, and shall now proceed to state the reasons which seem to me sufficient to justify me in venturing to differ from such eminent authorities.

It will be convenient to attempt in the first place to fix possible limiting dates, and, when that has been done, to determine, so far as may be, the approximate actual dates of the sculptures. The chron-legical enquiry involves the determination of their aesthetic affinities.

As to the initial date there is practically no dispute. It is inpossible to be certain that "the Indo-Grecian style" was really "introduced

* My quotations are from a letter dated 8th January 1889, with which Sir A. Canningham favoured me in answer to enquiries, and which consequently, express his latest and deliberate opinion on the subject. In the Introduction to Volume V of the Archæological Reports he had long ago expressed the same opinion as to the relation between the Kushán dynasty and the Gándhára sculptures, but the theory which he then held as to the Kushán chronology obliged him to fix the date of the sculptures nearly a century and a half earlier than he now does.

by the Greeks who ruled the country," as Sir A. Cunningham affirms that it must have been, because, with the exception of coins, not a vestige of Bactrian art is known to exist, and we know nothing almost about the Greeks who ruled the country beyond the names of some of them.

But, whoever introduced Greek art into India, so far as our present knowledge extends, the Taxilan Ionic temples are certainly our oldest specimens of Indo-Greek architecture, and the statuette of Athone, in the same posture in which she is shown on the coins of Azes, is our oldest Indo-Greek sculpture from the Gándhára region. Both the temples and statuette must date approximately from the beginning of the Christian era.

It has been shown above (p. 112) that Greek art influenced Indian sculpture and architectural decoration from the time of Asoka B. C. 250, and that more or less distinct traces of its influence may be traced in the interior of India for several centuries afterwards. Greek ideas reached India by at least two routes, namely, overland through Bactria, and by sea through the ports of the western coast.

The Athene and the Taxilan Ionic pillars are, I think, to be classed among the results of this old and long-continued Hellenistic influence.

The bases of the Ionic pillars at Taxila, according to the measurements of their discoverer, correspond exactly with the pure Attic model, as seen in the Erectheum. "The capitals differ from the usual Greek forms very considerably, and more especially in the extreme height of the abacus. The volutes also differ, but they present the same side views of a baluster, which is common to all the Greek forms of the Ionic order."* In other words, the pillars, though with peculiarities of their own, are Greek, not Roman. The Roman modification of the Ionic order was characterized by corner volutes.

At the beginning of the Christian era Roman art, as will be explained presently, had not affected India, and the fact that the Taxilan Ionic pillars are Greek, not Roman, in style, harmonizes perfectly with the numismatic evidence that they were creeted soon after B. C. 30.

So far, then, as the Athene and the Ionic pillars are concerned, it must be admitted that the Gándhára sculptures go back to the beginning of the Christian era, and A. D. 1 may be taken as the anterior limiting date. Nothing older is known in the Gándhára region. I shall endeavour to prove subsequently that nothing else which has been found there is nearly so old.

I shall now try to fix the posterior limiting date, which Mr. Fergus-

^{*} Archæol. Rep. Vol. V, p. 71, Pl. XVIII.

son places in the eighth century, and Sir A. Cunningham at the beginning of the fifth.

The extension of the Greeco-Buddhist series of sculptures down to the eighth century A. D. by Mr. Fergusson was suggested by the published accounts of the opening of the great tope at Mánikyála many years ago by General Ventura.

The undisturbed deposit which was found in the lower portion of that building included coins of Kanishka and Huvishka, and none later, and is legitimately interpreted as signifying that the structure in its original form cannot be older than A. D. 110, nor much later than A. D. 150.

The upper deposits, about the exact position of which there is some doubt, contained various coins ranging in date from Λ . D. 632 to about Λ . D. 730, and undoubtedly show that the top of the building must have been opened in the eighth century, and a deposit then made. But they prove nothing more.

We are altogether ignorant of the circumstances under which these upper deposits were made, and it is very unsafe to build any historical theories on their existence. The great tope at Manikyala is adorned with Indo-Corinthian pilasters, the existing capitals of which are executed in kankar, or nodular limestone. Sir A. Cunningham supposes that all the original work of the tope was in sandstone, and that the kankar mouldings date from the eighth century.* No other example of Indo-Corinthian work of that date is known, and, if the existing capitals were executed in the eighth century, I feel certain that they were mere restorations. As a matter of fact their date is quite uncertain. The attempt to connect the coin of Yaso Varma, A. D. 730, which was found in the upper deposit, with supposed repairs of the tope in the eighth century is purely conjectural. † All we really know is that somebody for some reason unknown opened the building at the top and put in a coin of Yaso Varma. Such an adventitious supplementary deposit is no substantial basis for an argument that Buddhism and Indo-Hellenie art still flourished in the Gandhara region in the eighth century, and, except Yaso Varma's coin, no evidence whatever, so far as I am aware, exists to support the inference that the Gandhara school of art continued to exist so late as the eighth century.

In another place, Mr. Fergusson, still relying on the same poor little coin, has given an unwarrantable extension to the duration

^{*} The great Mánikyála tope is discussed by Cunningham at considerable length in Archwol Rep., Vol. II, p. 139, and Vol. V, pp. 76-78.

^{† [}It is more probable that the coin is of the 6th century, of a Yaso Varman about 532 A. D. This would admirably fit in with "the limiting date" given on p. 153. See *Proceedings* for August 1888. Ep.]

of Buddhism as a dominant faith in Gándhára. "There were," he writes, "probably no great Buddhist establishments in Gándhára before Kanishka, and as few, if any, after Yáso Varma, yet we learn that between these dates [i. e. circa A. D, 78 to 730], this province was as essentially Buddhist as any part of India.*

In support of the last clause of this sentence the Chinese travellers Fa Hian and Hiuen Tsiang are appealed to, but their testimony does not support the conclusion drawn from it. After the middle of the seventh century, when Hiuen Tsiang wrote, very few parts of India were "essentially Buddhist," and Gándhára certainly was not. In A. D. 730 very little Buddhism can have been left in it.

Mr. Fergusson's language is correct when it is confined to the beginning of the fifth century. Fa Hian who travelled in India in the years A. D. 400—405, found Buddhism vigorous and flourishing in Gándhára, as in a large part of India. But, at the time of the travels of Hiuen Tsiang, A. D. 629—642, a very great change had taken place, and Gándhára was very far from being "essentially Buddhist."

The capital city of Gándhára, the modern Pesháwar, is, he notes "about 40 li [=6 to 7 miles] in circuit. The royal family is extinct, and the kingdom is governed by deputies from Kapisa [N. of Kábul]. The town and villages are deserted, and there are but few inhabitants.

At one corner of the royal residence there are about 1,000 families * * * There are about 1,000 sanghárámas [monasteries], which are deserted and in ruins. They are filled with wild shrubs, and solitary to the last degree. The stúpas are mostly decayed. The heretical temples, to the number of about 100, are occupied pell-mell by heretics."

At Pushkalávatí, the modern Hashtnagar, the pilgrim found a large population, but not of the congregation of the faithful, for the Buddhist buildings, like those of the capital, were in ruins.

Taxila, east of the Indus, was dependent on Kashmír, the royal family here also being extinct. The monasteries are described as "ruinous and descreed, and there are very few priests; those that there are, study the Great Vehicle."†

The graphic and emphatic words of Hiuen Tsiang prove with absolute certainty that at the time of his visits (A. D. 629—642) the Buddhist religion in Gaudhara was nearly extinct. The utter decay of which he gives such clear testimony must have been in progress for a considerable time. It is not possible that the Buddhist edifices of Peshawar could have become "deserted and in ruins, filled with wild shrubs, and solitary to the last degree" in a day.

- * History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 76.
- † Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. I, pp. 100, 109, 137.

It is quite safe to assume that Buddhism had ceased to be an active force in the Gaudhara region, including Taxila, by the year A. D. 600; and it is inconceivable that new religious edifices on any considerable scale should have been erected, or works of art deserving of the name, executed in that region subsequent to that date by the scattered, poverty-stricken, and necessarily dispirited adherents of a decaying religion.

It follows, therefore, that the series of Græco-Buddhist works in Gándhára does not extend, as Mr. Fergusson supposed, to the eighth century, but, on the contrary, was closed by the end of the sixth century.

As a matter of fact, the closing date must, I believe, be pushed back considerably farther, but in any case, A. D. 600 must be taken as the extreme possible limiting posterior date for any work of the Gandhara school in the Lower Kabul Valley. The dates of which we are in search lie, therefore, between A. D. 1 and A. D. 600.

The above argument, based on the testimony of Hiuen Tsiang, appears to me unanswerable, but it may be well to supplement it by other arguments, in themselves of less force, which reduce the closing date to still narrower bounds. I have already quoted Sir A Cunningham's remark that the head dresses of the Gándhára sculptures show no affinity with the Sassanian costume, and that the sculptures may therefore be regarded as prior, not only to A. D. 600, but to A. D. 400.

Another observation of Sir A. Cunningham's leads to nearly the same conclusion. He observes that "all, or nearly all, Buddhist building must have been stopped after the occupation of Pesháwar by Kitolo's son in the latter part of the fifth century." The Chinese account show that "the last king of the Yuchi [Yuch-ti] mentioned in history is Kitolo, who took possession of Gándhára, but was obliged to return to the west to oppose the white Huns, leaving his son in charge of the new province. The son established his capital in Fo-lu-she, or Parsháwár [Pesháwar]; and the name of the founder of the Little Yuchi, as they were afterwards called, still survives in the title of Sháh Kator, the Chief of Chitrál."*

The coins of the kings of the Little Yuchi are described as bearing Saiva emblems, † and the kings themselves, therefore, were presumably Brahmanists. It is going too far to assume with Sir A. Cunningham that the rule of a Saiva king must necessarily have put a stop to all, or nearly all, Buddhist buildings, but it must certainly have been un-

^{*} My first quotation is from a private letter. The second is from Archæol. Rep., Vol. II, p. 63. I have not verified the reference to Chinese authors, which is not given in detail.

[†] Archael Rep., Vol. V, p. 7. I have not seen any of these coins.

favourable to their erection. In another place Sir A. Cunningham speaks of "the first persecution of Buddhism by the Saiva kings of the Little Yuchi,"* but I do not know what evidence exists for this alleged persecution. Whatever may have been the precise attitude of the Little Yuchi kings towards Buddhism, it is certain that the latter years of the fifth century were times of conflict and turmoil throughout Northern India. The Bhitarí pillar inscription records the struggles between the Gupta dynasty and the Huns (Húnas), and in or about A. D. 480, on the death of Skanda Gupta, the Gupta empire broke up.† A few years later the stormy career of the Húna chief Mihirukula disturbed the whole of Northern India from Bengal to Káshmír.‡ In such a period of anarchy and confused struggles for dominion the arts of peace are perforce neglected, and it would be strange indeed if Gándhára in those days was the scene of the peaceful development of a considerable school of sculpture, as Mr. Fergusson supposed it to have been.

I doubt also if the Græco-Roman impulse retained any considerable force after A. D. 450, even on the north-west frontier. By that time it had certainly spent itself in India Proper, both in the North and West. The last faint traces of Greek skill in design are observable in the Gupta gold coinage of Chandra Gupta II, which was minted in Northern India about A. D. 400,—the later Hindú coinage is all barbarons in style. Corrupt and unmeaning Greek letters linger on the silver coins of Kumára Gupta and Skanda Gupta struck in Western India up to about A. D. 480, but the fact that these letters are corrupt and unmeaning shows that Hellenistic culture had then dwindled down to a dead tradition, even in Gujarát, which had been for centuries in communication with Alexandria and Rome.

In short, all that is known of early Indian history indicates the great improbability of the existence of a flourishing Hellenistic school of sculpture on the north-west frontier later than A. D. 450.

Before proceeding to the discussion of the artistic relations of the Gándhára sculptures, which will render the chronology more definite, one other piece of external evidence may be cited to prove that the good sculptures are much earlier than A. D. 600.

- * Archaol. Rep., Vol V, p. 42.
- † [See, however, on the dissolution of the Gupta empire, the paper !On an Inscribed seal of Kumára Gupta, ante, p. 85. Ep.]
- ‡ For the history of the Gupta period see Mr. Fleet's work on the Gupta inscriptions, Vol. III. of the Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum. I have given a very brief outline of it in my essay on the Gupta Coinage in the Journal Royal Asiatic Society for January 1889, to which reference may be made for the proof of the remarks in the next paragraph.

A statuette, Indo-Greek or Indo-Roman in style, wanting the hands and feet, was discovered by Dr. Bellew in the Gándhára country, carefully enclosed in a sepulchral chamber at the level of the ground in the centre of a stúpu. The statuette represents the standing Buddha, and is characterized by Dr. Bellew as "better carved than the generality of figures met with," and by Sir A. Cuuningham as "fine."*

The style of the statuette shows that it was executed during the flourishing period of the Gándhára school, and its mutilated condition proves that it was already old when deposited in the $st\acute{u}pa$. The form of that building indicates that it was created not later than Λ . D. 600, nor much earlier than Λ . D. 500.

It is thus evident, remarks Sir A. Cunningham, that the statuette was utilized at a time "when the zeal of first converts had long since died away, and the growing indifference of the people no longer required the manufacture of new statues. Under such circumstances, I can readily suppose that that the builders of the tope may have deposited any piece of Buddhist sculpture that came to hand, just as Brahmans at the present day will set up and worship any statue which may be found, caring little for its state of mutilation, and still less for its possible connexion with Jainism or Buddhism."

This curious discovery thus confirms the evidence already adduced to prove the propositions that the period Λ . D. 500 -600 was one of decay for Buddhism in Gándhára, that few new religious edifices were erected doing that period, though their construction did not altogether cease, and that the vigorous, local school of Indo-Hellenic art belongs to an earlier time.

My contention that the history of the Gandhara school of Indo-Hellenic art, consecrated to the service of Buddhism, was practically at an end by A. D. 450, may be met by the observation that Buddhist monuments of later date are known to exist in the upper Kabul Valley and elsewhere in the neighbouring countries.

One of the latest stapas, to which a date at all definite can be assigned, is that known as No 10, at Hidda near Jalálábád. This building contained a deposit of coins consisting of five gold solidi of the Byzantine emperors Theodosius, Marcian and Leo (A. D. 407—474), two very debased imitations of the Indo-Seythian coinage, which may be assigned to the sixth century, and no less than 202 Sassanian coins of various reigns, but all agreeing in the absence of any trace of Muhammadan influence.

Masson and Wilson, arguing from these facts, reasonably came to

^{*} Cunningham, Descripting List, No. 165; and Archaed. Rep. Vol. V, p. 42, with quotations from Dr. Bellew's Report on Yúsufzai, the original of which I have not seen.

the conclusion that the stúpa must have been constructed between the years A. D. 474 and 690, at which latter date the Muhammadan incursions had begun, and Kábul was governed by Bráhman kings.*

The Sassanian coins indicate that the monument was erected about A. D. 600.

A stúpa belonging to approximately the same period, with an undisturbed deposit of coins, was opened by Sir A. Cunningham at Baoti Pind in the Ráwal-Pindi District, east of the Indus.†

No stúpa of later date than those at Hidda and Baoti Pind is, I believe, known either in Afghánistán or the Panjáb, though I should be sorry to affirm that none such exist.

These examples prove, as we had already learned from Hinen Tsiang, that Buddhism, though sadly weakened at the beginning of the seventh century, was still alive, and show, which was hardly to be expected, that occasionally persons could still be found willing to spend much time and money on works dedicated to the religion of Buddha.

But these examples prove nothing in favour of the late continuance of the Gándhára school of sculpture.

I do not think that any Indo-Hellenic sculpture was found associated with the ruins of the Baoti Pind stúpa. The published information concerning the architectural and sculptured decorations of the stúpas near Jalálábád is very meagro. So far as it goes, it indicates that, whatever may be the reason of the difference, the monuments in the upper Kábul valley do not display such manifest traces of Greec-Roman influence as do those situate in the lower Kábul valley or Gándhára. Wilson speaks more than once of "plain mouldings" on the pilasters, and does not, I think, note any example of the Indo-Corinthian capital among the ruins of the Jalálábád topes. The date of these topes has, consequently, little bearing on the question concerning the chronology of the Gándhára sculptures.

It is probable that these sculptures are the work of a special local school, working on the lines of Roman art under the patronage of the sovereigns who resided at the city now known as Pesháwar. It seems clear that the head quarters of the school were at Pesháwar, and that the special modification of Roman art, worked out by the artists of that city, never spread beyond the bounds of a comparatively small region in the vicinity of the capital. The connection between the Pesháwar school and the architects and sculptors of interior India was, I believe, very slight, if it existed at all.

I have ventured to assert positively that the Gandhara or Peshawar

- * Ariana Antiqua, pp. 44, 110, Pl, XVI, XVIII.
- † Archaeol. Rep., Vol. II, p. 141.

local school of sculpture followed the lines of Roman art, and is not the direct descendant of pure Greek art. This proposition of course is to be taken strictly as applying only to the Pesháwar school. It does not apply to the case of the Ionic pillars at Taxila, nor to the sculptures at Buddha Gayá or Bhárhut. The Sánchi work too is probably free from Roman influence, and I cannot perceive any very clear traces of such influence at Amarávatí, though I am not certain that it is altogether absent. The art work in some of the caves in Western India, on the other hand, was in all probability influenced by the specially Roman developments of Greek art.

I pass by on the present occasion the wider questions suggested by an examination of the entire field of early Indian art, and confine myself to the discussion of the nature and degree of Roman influence on the local Gándhára or Pesháwar school of sculpture, which is specially characterized by the use for decorative purposes of the Indo-Corinthian capital.

A brief outline of some of the most material facts in the history of the intercourse between Rome and India will help my readers to appreciate more accurately the value of comparisons between Indian and Roman works, and to understand the bearing of such comparisons on the chronology of the Gándhára school.

Roman influence was not felt by India until after the establishment of the empire of the Cæsars, and the subjugation of Egypt by Augustus; and even during the reign of Augustus, the maritime commerce between Rome and India appears to have been conducted by Arab ships.

The discovery or re-discovery of the course of the monsoon by Hippalos, about the middle of the first century A. D., first rendered it possible for Roman ships to reach the Indian shores.

The overland trade between India and the Roman empire appears to have first attained large dimensions at about the same time. Pliny, who died A. D. 79, laments, in a well-known and often quoted passage, the heavy drain of gold from the capital towards the east, and his evidence is confirmed by the large number of coins of the early Roman empire which have been found in India.

The overthrow of the Nabatæan kingdom of Petra in A. D. 105 secured for Palymra the commercial preeminence on the principal land route between the Roman empire on one side and India and China on the other, and that city retained the preeminence thus gained until it was sacked by Aurelian in A. D. 273. Palymra was visited by the emperor Hadrian about the year A. D. 130, and about A. D. 200, in the reign either of Septimus Severus, or of his son Caracalla, was made a Roman colony.

Active communication between the Roman empire and the far east was maintained during the third century, not only by the peaceful methods of commerce, but by the frequent oriental expeditions of the emperors. The disastrous war of Valerian with the king of Persia, A. D. 254—260, brought the armies of Rome into almost direct contact with India.

The period of Palmyra's commercial greatness, A. D. 105—273, coincided with the period of Roman military activity in the east, and in part with the prosperity of Alexandria, the emporium of the Indian sea-borne trade. This period, accordingly, is that during which Roman intercourse with India attained its maximum. "It was during the reigns of Severus [A. D. 194—211], his son Caracalla [A. D. 211—217], and the Pseudo-Antonines that Alexandria and Palmyra were most prosperous, and that Roman intercourse with India attained its height. The Roman literature gave more of its attention to Indian matters, and did not, as of old, confine itself to quotations from the historians of Alexander, or the narratives of the Seleucidan ambassadors, but drew its information from other and independent sources."

The existence of such independent sources of information is apparent from the works of Clemens Alexandrinus, (who mentious Buddha and stápas), Philostratus, Ælian, and other writers.*

It so happened that at the date, A. D. 273, of the cruel destruction of Palmyra, Alexandria too had fallen into comparative decay. "It would," of course, as Priaulx observes, "be absurd to suppose that the destruction of Palmyra, however much it affected, put an end to the Indian trade through the Persian Gulf." The trade continued, and part of it passed for a time to Batné near the Euphrates, a day's journey from Edessa.† But the Indo-Roman trade, though not stopped, was necessarily very much diminished in volume by the destruction of its overland, and the decay of its maritime emporium, and the intercourse between Rome and the far east became much more difficult and intermittent than it had been for about two centuries previously.

The Alexandrian trade about this time seems to have been abandoned by Roman ships, and to have depended on Arab vessels, as in the days of Augustus. In the reign of Constantine (A. D. 306—337) commerce with the east revived, but the Roman ships seem to have rarely, if ever, ventured, beyond the Arabian Gulf of the Red Sea.

^{*} Prianlx, Apollonius of Tyana and Indian Embassies to Rome, pp. 132, seqq. My remarks on the course of Roman trade with India are chiefly drawn from this valuable little book and Prof. Robertson Smith's article on Palymra, in the ninth edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica.

[†] Priaulx, Apollonius of Tyana, etc., pp. 178, 233.

The known facts of the external relations between the Roman empire and India, therefore, apart from all æsthetic criticism, suggest that, if Indian art was influenced by Roman art, the influence would have been most active during the period which may be defined, in round numbers, as extending from Λ . D. 100 to 350. It would hardly be reasonable to expect that the partial interruption of intercourse between A. D. 273 and 306 should be traceable in Indian art history, and it is not traceable.

I have named A. D. 100 as the approximate earliest possible anterior limit for Roman influence on Indian art, but, as a matter of fact, that date is too early. The name of Rome must of course have been long known to a greater or less extent in India, but I doubt if the Oriental would know much about the Roman empire, before the reign of Hadrian (A. D. 117—138), whose expeditions to Syria (circa A. D. 130), and passion for building great edifices must have spread the fame of his power among the merchants of the east. I consider it improbable that Roman models could have affected Indian art before A. D. 150. On the other hand, Roman influence continued to be felt by the arts of India after A. D. 350, and may not have completely disappeared for a century later.

The ground has now been cleared for an examination in some detail of the Roman elements in the art of the Gándhára or Pesháwar school. The general aspect of the figure sculptures and architectural decorations of that school is, as Mr. Fergusson perceived, distinctly Roman, but a vague assertion to that effect cannot convince anybody who has not acquired some familiarity with the art both of Rome and Gándhára. Detailed proofs are necessary to carry conviction to the mind of the ordinary reader. I shall now proceed to give some.

"Roman architecture, as we know it, dates only from about the Christian era, and the rapidity with which it spread from that time is something marvellous. Through nearly the whole extent of the Roman empire, through Asia Minor, Sicily, Britain, France, Syria, Africa,—with one great exception, Egypt,—all was Roman in moulding, ornament, details, the very style of carving, and the construction. No matter what the country of the architect, all seem to have lost their nationality when the Roman came, and to have adopted implicitly his system of design and decoration...........

"It is not uncommon to find examples of Roman architecture completely overdone with ornament, every moulding carved, and every straight surface, whether vertical or horizontal, sculptured with foliage or characteristic subjects in relief."*

^{*} Lewis and Street, article Architecture in Encyclopædia Britannica, 9th edition, pp. 418, 421.

To the list of countries above chumcrated as having adopted the Roman system of design and decoration, the Lower Kabul Valley, though it never formed part of the Roman empire, must be added.

So far as I understand the published plans and elevations, the Gandhara buildings show little Roman influence in their construction, though I should not venture to affirm that careful study might not reveal the existence of Roman elements in their plan and construction. However this may be, these buildings, like those of the provinces of the empire, were "Roman in moulding, ornament, details, and the very style of carving," and were characterized, like better known examples of Roman work, by excess of ornament, and by the lavish use for decorative purposes of crowded realistic compositions in high and low

Almost every frieze or panel from Gáudhára is decorated with florid Corinthian pilasters, and numerous fragments of similar Corinthian capitals belonging to structural pillars have been found. No one can give the most cursory glance at a collection of Gáudhára sculptures without being struck by the free employment of the Corinthian capital as an ornament. No other Græco-Roman form of capital is used, though for a time the Indo-Persian form continued to dispute the field with its newly introduced rival.

Such extensive and exclusive use of the Corinthian form of pillar is in itself decisive proof that the school characterized by it was dominated by Roman influence, and was not a direct descendant of Greek art.

The case of Palmyra offers an exact parallel to what we see in Gándhára. "It is remarkable," observes Wood, "that, except four Ionic half-columns in the temple of the sun, and two in one of the mausoleums, the whole is Corinthian, richly ornamented, with some striking beauties, and some as visible faults."*

We find the same state of facts at the other great Syrian city of Baalbee, or Heliopolis, "which, so far as it has been known to modern travellers, is a Roman city of the second century A. D. The Corinthian order of architecture—the favourite order of the Romans—prevails with few exceptions in its edifices. A Doric column, the supposed clepsydra, is, indeed, mentioned by Wood and Dawkins, and the Ionic style is found in the interior of the circular temple;" but all else is Corinthian.

The style of the great temples at Palmyra is later and more debased than that of the corresponding edifices at Baalbec. No building of importance was erected at Palmyra after the sack of the city by Aurelian in A. D. 273, and the temples may be referred to the third century A. D.,

^{*} Wood, Palmyra, p. 15.

having probably been erected during the reigns of Odenathus and Zenobia (A. D. 260—273.)

During the period A D. 105—273 Palmyra was the principal depôt of the overland trade between India and the west, and the caravans which were constantly passing and re-passing through it must have affected some exchange of ideas as well as of more material wares. It is, therefore, reasonable to believe that the example of Palmyra was one of the factors which influenced the Gándhára architects and sculptors in their adoption of the universally diffused Corinthian style.*

The peculiarities of the Indo-Corinthian pillars have been briefly described in a previous page (pp. 117, 118).

Sir A. Cunningham holds that "at least all the fine examples" of the Indo-Corinthian style, such as the capitals found at Jamálgarhí, which are the finest known, should be ascribed to the same age as the temples with Ionic pillars at Taxila.

This view appears to me altogether erroneous, and inconsistent with the observed facts. The Taxilan temples date from the beginning of the Christian era, and show no trace of the domination of Roman ideas of art.

The Indo-Corinthian remains, on the other hand, bear on their face the most obvious resemblance to Roman work, and must consequently be later than the time when India and Rome came into contact. On historical grounds I have fixed the approximate date at which Roman forms of architectural decoration reached India as not earlier than A. D. 150, and an examination of the Indo-Corinthian works fully confirms this inference drawn from the known facts of external history.

It is, I venture to affirm, impossible that a florid adaptation of the Corinthian order, such as is universally employed in the buildings of Gándhára Proper, could have attained such favour except under Roman influence.

Pure Greek examples of the Corinthian order are extremely rare, while Roman examples are numbered by thousands. The Corinthian pillar, modified so freely, that no two specimens exactly agree, was the favourite architectural decoration employed by the builders of imperial Rome, and by those of the subject provinces, who followed the fashion set at the seat of government.

I think I am perfectly accurate in asserting that Corinthian capitals, at all like those at Jamálgarhí, were not produced anywhere in the world as early as the beginning of the Christian era, whereas plenty of capitals,

^{*} Prof Robertson Smith's articles in the Encyclopædia Britannica, 9th edition, give excellent summaries of the present state of knowledge respecting Palmyra and Baalbee.

very like these, though differing in detail, were executed in various parts of the Roman world during the third and fourth centuries.

The fact, (according to Sir A. Cunningham's measurements), that the only two Indo-Corinthian bases of columns yet discovered do not differ widely from the bases of the pillars in the Choragic monument of Lysicrates, which was erected in B. C. 334, does not render credible the supposition that capitals similar to Roman work of the Antonine period were executed at the beginning of the Christian era.

Mr. Fergusson described the Jamálgarhí capitals as being "more Greek than Roman in the character of their foliage, but more Roman than Greek in the form of their volutes and general design. Perhaps," he added, "it would be correct to say they are more Byzantine than either, but, till we have detailed drawings, and know more of their surroundings, it is difficult to give a positive opinion as to their age."*

The great critic, with the imperfect materials at his command, might have felt a difficulty in deciding whether a given specimen was to be dated from A. D. 200 or 400, but he had no difficulty in seeing the strong Roman element which exists in all the specimens. Mr. Freeman has more than once called attention to the remarkable circumstance that human figures are inserted among the acanthus foliage of the Corinthian capitals in the ruins of the Baths of Caracalla at Rome.

"The artist," he observes, "has been so far from confining himself to one prescribed pattern, either of volutes or acauthus leaves, that he has ventured to employ vigorously carved human or divine figures as parts of the enrichment of his capitals."

Similar figures, employed just in the same way, occur in some of the Indo-Corinthian capitals from Jamálgarhí, and are described by their discoverer as follows:—

"The human figures, which are introduced in the spaces between the acanthus feaves, are all small, and do not interfere in the least degree with the treatment of the foliage. When there is only one figure, it is always that of Buddha, either sitting or standing, and, when there are three figures, the middle one is of Buddha, and the others are attendant Arhaus. These figures are never obtrusive, and they are always so placed that, to my eye, they harmonize most agreeably with the surrounding and overhauging foliage."‡

- * History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 174.
- † The quotation is copied from Cunningham, Archeol Rep., Vol. V, p. 193, where the original is said to be in an essay by Mr Freeman published in Macmillan's Magazine; but no exact reference is given. Mr. Freeman alludes briefly to the subject in his separately published essays on Italian architecture.
- ‡ Cunningham, Archæol Rep, Vol, V, p. 193. On the same page the author makes an unfortunate slip, and places Caracalla "in the beginning of the first century

Whatever be the esthetic merits or demerits of the practice of introducing human figures into the Corinthian capital, it was a Roman practice. No one will contend that the capitals in the Baths of Caracalla are imitations of those in the Gaughára monasteries. It follows that the Gaudhára capitals are imitated either from those in the Baths of Caracalla, or others of similar design of the same period. The reign of Caracalla extended from A. D. 211 to 217; and the necessary inference is that the Jamálgarhí capitals with human figures are later than A. D. 217.

This inference as to the date of the Jamalgarhi sculptures derived from the character of the capitals is in complete accordance with the conclusions deducible from an examination of the style of the sculptures in relief.

Before quitting the topic of the Indo-Corinthian capitals, it is only just that I should complete the account of Mr. Fergusson's views as to their date. He argues that their form argues a date later than the reign of Constantine (A. D. 306—337), after which time "the design of the capitals went wild, if the expression may be used. The practice of springing arches from them, instead of supporting horizontal architraves, required a total change, and in the West it produced exactly the same effects that we find in Gándhára.* The capitals for instance, in the churches of St. Demetrius and that now known as the Eski Jouma of Jouma at Salonica, both built in the early part of the 5th century, are almost identical in design with these, and many of the churches in Asia Minor and Syria show the same 'abandon' in design, through frequently in another direction."

I have no doubt that Mr. Fergusson is right in comparing the Gándhára capitals with those of the two Syrian churches belonging to the early part of the fifth century which he names, and that a general resemblance exists between the objects compared. Such a general resemblance is quite natural, even if there be an interval of fifty or a hundred years between the Syrian and the Indian pillars. But, if Mr. Fergusson intended to suggest that the Jamálgarhí pillars were exe-

of the Christian era," and thence argues for the early date of the complures. Mr-Fergusson, in correcting this accidental error, allowed himself to fall into a similar one, and dated the baths of Caracalla in the reign of Constantine.

^{*} Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 178, with references to Texier and Pullan's Byzantino Architecture, and De Vogüé's Syrie Centrale. The Syrian pillars figured by De Vogüé display certainly a great 'abandon' of design, but they have no resemblance whatever to the Gándhára forms. I except, of course, the comparatively regular Corinthian capitals at Palmyra and Baalbec, which are not much dissimilar from the Gándhára varieties.

cuted subsequent to the reign of Constantine, I cannot agree with him. They belong rather to the Antonine period, and may be referred with approximate correctness to A. D. 250, the Indian development being necessarily a little later than its Roman original.

I do not know whether true structural arches, carried on Corinthian pillars, were employed in the construction of the Gándhára monasteries or not, but it is probable that they were; for the reliefs show numerous examples of arches carried on such pillars, and used as decoration.

Mr. Fergusson's hint that it would perhaps be more accurate to call the Indo-Corinthian capitals Byzantine than either Greek or Roman does not seem to me a fruitful one. The term Byzantine may, of course, be used with reference to any Roman art of the fourth century,* to which period some of the Gándhára sculptures must be referred, but it generally connotes the formal, hieratic, and long stationary style of later date. The good Gándhára works do not seem to me to be characterized by the hieratic stiffness which is the special note of Byzantine art, although some of them are closely related to works executed in the reign of Constantine; and when the school began to decay, the art of Gándhára passed, not into Byzantine formalism, but into Hindú barbarism.

When Mr. Fergusson wrote, the erroneous date which he assumed for the Amarávatí rails, and the inferences which he drew from the discovery of the coin of Yaso Varman in the great tope at Mánikyálá predisposed him to assign an unduly late date to the Gándhára school.

Mr. Fergusson rightly observed that some of the Gándhára sculptures might be mistaken for early Christian works, but he did not follow out the hint thus given, and the remark, though perfectly true, has not attracted much attention. He supported the observation by a cursory reference to the early Christian sarcophagi and ivories. I have examined the fine collection of ivories, original and casts, in the South Kensington Museum, and, while admitting that some have really an artistic relation with the Gándhára work, I venture to think that the relation is not very close.

The representation of Christ standing under a small arch, supported on fluted columns, with florid capitals of a modified Corinthian form, as seen on the front of the Brescia casket, dating from the fifth or sixth century, is undoubtedly akin to the Gándhára representations of Buddha; and the procession of Joseph and his brethren on the Ravenna chair recalls, though less vividly, some of the processional scenes of the

^{*} Constantinople was formally consecrated as the New Rome in A. D. 330.

Indian reliefs.* But the ivories do not seem to me to be exactly contemporary with the Indian work.

The closest parallels to the Gándhára sculptures in relief are to be found among the remains of early Christian art, though not among the ivery carvings. These parallels are to be found in a place where we should hardly expect them, the Catacombs of Rome.

It would be impossible by any number of pages of mere description to bring home to the reader's mind the reality of the likeness here asserted, but a comparison of the heliogravure plates of the Gándhára sculptures edited by Major Cole with the similar plates of the sculptures in the Catacombs in Roller's work will convince any one who takes the trouble to make it that the connection between the two, however it came to pass, is very close indeed.†

I shall merely give references to the plates in M. Roller's book which closely resemble Major Cole's.

- Pl. XIII. A sarcophagus, "à demi-païen, à demi-chrétien," from the cemetery of Callixtus, and probably dating from the third century. The arrangement of the whole composition much resembles that of many of the Gándhára reliefs, and the posture of the figure of Psyche is nearly identical with that of Prajápatí in the Nativity group from the upper monastery at Nuttu, described ante, p. 124.
- Pl. XLIV. Sarcophagus of St. Constantia, with vintage scenes and genii; 4th century.
- Pl. XLV. Sarcophagus from the Basilica of St. Paul, with various scenes of the life of Christ and His disciples, sculptured in high relief; 4th century. The scenes in this composition are not separated by columns. The resemblance in general effect to some of the best Gándhára sculptures is very strong.
- * Westwood, Descriptive Catalogue of the Fictile Ivories in the South Kensington Museum (1876), Pl. II, III. Compare the large Catalogue of Original Ivories in the same Museum by Maskell (1872), and the little hand-book by the same writer, entitled Ivories, Ancient and Medieval. Other references are given by Fergusson in I. and E. Architecture, p. 182.
- † Les Catacombes de Rome, Histoire de l'Art et des Groyances Religiouses pendant les premiers Siècles du Christianisme, par Théophile Roller, Paris, Vvo. A. Morel et Cie.; 2 vols. large folio n. d., with 100 heliogravure plates. Readers who cannot obtain access to this work or De Rossi's publications may verify the comparison made by reference to "Roma Sotterranga, or an Account of the Roman Catacombs especially of the Cemetery of St. Callistus; compiled from the works of Commendatore De Rossi, with the consent of the author. New edition, rewritten and greatly enlarged, by Rev. J. Spencer Northeote, D. D., Canon of Birmingham, and Rev. W. R. Brownlow, M. A., Canon of Plymouth;" 2 volumes, 8vo., London, Longman's, Green and Co., 1879, with numerous engravings.

- Pl. XLVIII. Resurrection of Lazarus, and other incidents; 4th, or possibly, 5th century. The thick, stumpy figures much resemble some of those in reliefs from Nuttu and Sanghao.
- Pl. XLIX. Sarcophagus of 4th or 5th century, with a long row of worshippers.
- Pl. LIV. Representation of an agapé feast; 5th century. The winged genii and other figures much resemble those seen in Gándhára art.
- Pl. LVIII. Sarcoplagus of Constantine in the Lateran Museum; 4th century. Relief sculptures with intercolumniations and architrave. Christ is seated in the centre compartment, like Buddha in the Gándhara compositions.
- Pl. LIX. The celebrated sarcophagus of Junius Bassus, dated A. D. 359. Various scenes are represented in panels divided by columns. The style is very similar to that of good Gándhára work.

Pl. LX. Five sarcophagi of the 4th century; various subjects.

Pl. LXVIII. Adoration of the magi; 4th century, compare the Gandhara representation of the four kings offering the precious bowls to Buddha. One example of this is in the Lahore Museum, No. 405 of Cunningham's Descriptive List, and another, (or possibly the same work), is figured by Major Cole.

Pl. LXIX. The Epiphany; 4th century.

Pl. LXXVI. Elijah ascending to heaven in a four-horsed chariot; 4th, or possibly 3rd, century.

Pl. LXXXI. Sarcophagus, probably of about 5th century.

Pl. LXXXII. Sarcophagus of 5th century.

Pl. LXXXVII. Worship of the labarum symbol, the cross enclosed in a circle, elevated in the centre compartment of an intercolumniated relief; 5th century.

This composition has a very strong resemblance to the representation of the worship of the *Trisúl*, the emblem of the Buddhist faith, in Major Cole's volume.

It is, as I have said, impossible by means of mere verbal description to express the intimate relation which exists between the art of Gándhára, and these Christian sculptures from the Catacombs, which range in date from about A. D. 250 to 450; but it is equally impossible for any person to compare photographs of the two sets of objects, and to fail in perceiving the likeness, in some cases almost amounting to identity, of style and treatment. The evident analogy, too, between the representations of the Buddha and the Christ shows that there is a substantial identity of subject, veiled under difference of name, as well as in treatment. The facts invite speculation as to the possibility and probability

of an appreciable amount of Christian influence on the later development of Buddhism, but I cannot venture at present to embark on the tempting, though perilous, sea of conjecture to which such speculation would lead me.

I have shown above that no difficulty exists in supposing that Indian art may have been affected by the Palmyrene variety of the cosmopolitan Roman style. Inasmuch as that style was cosmopolitan, it is impossible to say that any given Indian adaptation of a Roman model was borrowed from the art of Palmyra or any other particular locality. If we find an Indian sculpture nearly identical with one at Palmyra, all that can be safely asserted is, that both have a common origin, and date from approximately the one period, while there is no reason why the Indian imitation should not have been copied directly from a Palmyrene model.

Bearing in mind these explanations, it is interesting to observe that a frieze from the upper monastery at Nuttu, reproduced in Major Cole's Plate 16, figure 1, is substantially identical with the Palmyrene frieze engraved in Wood's Plate 41.

The latter adorns a building which bears an inscription recording the execution of repairs during the reign of Diocletian (A. D. 284—305), who kept a garrison at Palmyra, but the building, and the frieze with which it is decorated, probably were erected about the middle of the third century.

The Nuttu design consists of a vine stem, knotted into five circles, forming small panels; the first of which, to the left, contains leaves only, the second is occupied by a boy or Genius plucking grapes, the third exhibits two boys playing with a goat, the fourth displays a rudely executed goat sitting up and nibbling the vine, and the fifth represents a boy plucking grapes.

At Palmyra, the figures of the boys and goats are wanting, but the design of the knotted vine is absolutely identical with that in the frieze from Nuttu, and the two works cannot be far apart in date. Somewhat similar scroll patterns are common in Roman art, and occur occasionally in other works of the Gándhára school.

The porphyry sarcophagus of St. Constantia, executed in the reign of Constantine (A. D. 306—337), to which I have already referred (ante, p. 165), is adorned with a relief exhibiting the pressing of grapes by winged cupids, set in scrolls of vine stems, bearing a general resemblance to the design of the Nuttu frieze. The subsidiary garland, acanthus leaf, and animal decorations of St. Constantia's sarcophagus all have a strong likeness to the Nuttu sculptures and other works of the Gándhára school.

I venture to maintain with some confidence that I cannot be far wrong in assuming A. D. 300 as an approximate mean date for the remains of the upper monastery at Nuttu. This chronological determination is of special value because the sculptures from this site, though extremely various in subject, are probably all contemporaneous, or nearly so. The whole site occupied an area measuring only about 80 by 60 feet, and 79 objects were found within this small space. Most of these are stone sculptures, which lay round two small stúpas, each ten feet in diameter, that occupied the centre of the building. Fragments of plaster figures were found at a distance of a few feet from the miniature stúpas.*

The varied collection of sculptures obtained within this small space comprises the Nativity scene, (ante, p. 123), the very elegant figure of a woman standing under a conventional palm-tree, (ante, p. 124), a specimen of the adaptation of the Rape of Ganymede, (ante, p. 134), two examples of the death-bod scene or parinirvána, (ante, p. 125), and numerous figures of Buddha associated with his disciples, the master being sometimes represented with both shoulders draped, and wearing moustaches, (anta, p. 127).

It seems reasonable to suppose that sculptures obtained within such a very limited area, and belonging to one school of art, cannot be very widely separated from one another in date. It is not likely that they were all executed in a single year, but, for the purposes of art history, they may be safely regarded as contemporaneous.

If then I am right in fixing A. D. 300 as the approximate date for this group of subjects, a valuable standard for the chronology of the whole school has been rendered available, and we learn that, at the date specified, all the subjects named had been adopted by Buddhist artists as proper themes for the exercise of their skill.

I cannot attempt to indicate every instance in which the art of Gándhára appears to be an echo of that of imperial Rome, and shall quote but few more such instances. The representation of a long roll or undulated garland carried by boys is one of the commonest subjects treated in the Gándhára friezes. A specimen is thus described by Dr. Anderson;—"G. 91, a to d.—Four portions of a frieze. Children supporting on their shoulders a long undulated garland, on which are tied bunches of grapes, and other ornaments; in the drooping folds above which, in some, appear the busts and heads of winged human figures, and, in one, a bird of prey with extended wings, while, in others, the intervals are filled with floral devices."

^{*} Cole, Second Report, p. cxxiii, Pl. 6 (plan and elevation).

[†] Anderson's Catalogue, Part I, p. 241. Cf. Colo's heliogravure plate 7, figures 2, 3.

Numerous illustrations might be quoted in proof of the proposition that designs of this class are Roman in origin, but I shall content myself with referring to one, a friezo found in the Palestrina territory, probably dating from the time of Constantine, which represents a very large garland carried by boys.*

The same subject occurs repeatedly in the sculptures of Amarávatí, though treated in more Indian style. A notable distinction between the methods of treatment in Gándhára and at Amarávatí is that the Gándhára artists always give the roll an imbricated surface, such as is commonly seen in Roman art, whereas the Amarávatí sculptors mark the surface with lines in a manner of their own. But I suspect that at Amarávatí, as well as in Gándhára, the motive was borrowed from Roman art.

The Buddhist artists, following the usual Indian practice, converted the foreign motive to the purposes of their own ceremonial, and, as Sir A. Cunningham has pointed out, used the Roman garland to represent the light scrpentine frame of bamboo covered with tinsel, which was carried in procession at Buddhist festivals, as it is to this day in Burma.

I have already referred to the fact that the conventional representation of the parinirvána or death-bed of Buddha is borrowed from the sculptures of Roman sarcophagi or Græco-Roman sepulchral reliefs (ante, p. 126).

I have also mentioned (ante, p. 136) that the representations of winged animals, and marine monsters, and the comic friezes of boys riding on lions and other beasts, so common in the early Buddhist sculptures both of Gándhára and India Proper, are ultimately derived from the works of the Alexandrian schools of Greek art, which are supposed to trace their parentage to Scopas.

The early examples of this class of subjects which occur in the interior of India, and are prior in date to the establishment of the Roman empire, must be imitations of Greek models. In all probability the artists of Buddha Gayá and Bhárhut obtained their knowledge of these foreign forms by means of the sea commerce conducted with Alexandria through the inland depot of Ozene (Ujjain), and the port of Barygaza (Bharoch).† At Amarávatí it is possible that the channel of communication was Roman.

The Gándhára compositions dealing with similar subjects should be compared, not with Greek art, but with the representations of the

^{*} Visconti, Musco Pio-Clementino, Vol. VII, pl. XXXV.

[†] See the Introduction to McCrindle's translation of the Periplus of the Erythrwan Sea.

Triumph of Bacchus, and of processions of the Genii Bacchici and Genii Circenses, many examples of which may be seen in Visconti's plates, and in other illustrated works on Roman art.

It is not easy to determine the chronological sequence of the various remains in the Yúsufzai country.

"The principal groups of ruins," remarks Sir A. Cunningham, "are at Sháhbázgarhi, Sáwaldher, and Sahri Bahlol in the plain; and at Ránígat, Jamalgarhi, Takht-i-Bahi, and Kharkai in the hills. There are similar remains at many other places, as at Topi, Ohind, and Zeda in Utmanzai; at Túrli, Baksháli, and Gharyáli in Súdam; and at Matta and Sanghao in Lúnkhor."*

To this list must be added the ruins of the monasteries at Mián Khán and Nuttu, which lie close to those at Sanghao, and were explored by Major Cole.

The buildings and sculptures of Jamálgarhí were the first described, and are the best known. It is very unfortunate that no accurate record has been kept in many cases of the exact site where certain sculptures were found, and the consequent uncertainty greatly hinders satisfactory discussion. But it is certain that by far the largest proportion of the specimens of Gándhára art in the Indian Museum at Calcutta came from Jamálgarhí, and that some of the best specimens in the British Museum came from the same locality. The Gándhára school was in its prime when the Jamálgarhí sculptures were executed. I have shown (ante, p. 163) that the Indo-Corinthian capitals found there are later than A D. 217. So far as I can see at present, the Jamálgarhí remains do not vary much in style, and their execution cannot be extended over a very long period. The best may be dated A. D. 250, and the latest A. D. 300. Of course, all such dates must be regarded as mere approximations in round numbers.

I have adduced (ante, p. 168) reasons for believing that the sculptures from the upper monastery at Nuttu are slightly later, dating from about A. D. 300. Those from the lower monastery at the same site belong to the same period.

The Sanghao sculptures, which are fully illustrated by Major Cole, are in general contemporaneous with those at Nuttu, but some of the Sanghao works look a little later.

Many of the sculptures from Mián Khán, which are illustrated by Major Cole's heliogravures Nos. 23 to 30 inclusive, seem to me superior in execution to, and more Greek in style than, those from other sites. But very little difference can be discerned between the work at

Mián Khán and the best at Jamálgarhí. Some of the Mián Khán specimens may be as old as A. D. 200, though none, I should think, are older.

As to Kharkai no detailed information is available. Sir A. Cunningham merely notes that he saw a large collection of sculptures from this locality in the possession of Mr. Beckett, and that he obtained a considerable number himself "similar in all respects to the sculptures that have been dug up at other places."* Inasmuch as Sir A. Cunningham's criticisms are chiefly concerned with the objects obtained at Jamálgarhí, it may be assumed that the Kharkai sculptures are not remote in date from those procured at that locality.

"The remains at Sáwaldher, $2\frac{1}{3}$ miles to the cast of Jamálgarhí, are mostly covered by the houses of the village, and are, therefore, inaccessible. It is believed, however, that some of the finest specimens in the Lahore Museum were obtained at this place by Dr. Bellow."† If this belief be correct, the Sáwaldher ruins must be as old as those at Mián Khán, and it is possible that some of the buildings may have been older, and contained works tracing their parentage directly to Greek art. It is a great pity that the objects in the Lahore Museum were not properly labelled.

The excavations at Sahri Bahlol proved that the site had been occupied in very ancient times, perhaps as early as B. C. 2,000,‡ and the existence of the stúpas, containing the broken statue imbedded in it, proves that Buddhist votaries occupied the place as late as A. D. 500 or 600 (A. D. ante, p. 155). The broken statue was particularly well executed, and presumably may be referred to the third century.

The information respecting the sculpture at Takht-i-Bahí is very scanty. Mr. Fergusson, from examination of photographs, judged that the remains at this place are of considerably later date than those at Jamálgarhí, and his judgment on a question of relativé date is entitled to the greatest respect.

At Takht-i-Bahí, a court was excavated, surrounded on three sides by lofty chapels, each of which seems to have enshrined a colossal plaster statue of Buddha, some twenty feet, or more, in height. Such colossal plaster images do not appear to belong to a very early stage of Buddhist art, and their presence confirms Mr. Fergusson's suggestion that the remains at Takht-i-Bahí should be placed late in the series. Perhaps A. D. 400 to 450 may be assigned as a tentative date.

To sum up, I accept the numismatic evidence, agreeing as it

^{*} Archæol. Rep., Vol. V, p. 54.

[†] Ibid., ibid.

[‡] Ibid., p. 38.

does with the architectural, that the Ionic pillars found in two temples at Taxila, cast of the Indus, date from about the beginning of the Christian era, and are, with the exception of a very few sculptures of the same period, the earliest known examples of Indo-Hellenic work in the Panjáb. These pillars I regard as results of the operation of Hellenistic, as distinguished from Roman, influence. Hellenistic ideas can also be traced in the early Buddhist sculptures, which were executed prior to the establishment of the empire of the Cæsars, at Bhárhut, Buddha Gayá, and other places in the interior of India.

The sculptures from the Yúsufzai country, the kingdom of Gándhára properly so called, which lies west of the Indus, in the immediate neighbourhood of Pesháwar, are, I believe, the work of a local school, probably founded by a foreign colony, which drew its inspiration directly from Roman, and only remotely from Greek art. This local school may be conveniently designated either as the Gándhára or Pesháwar school. The name Græco-Buddhist proposed by Dr. Leitner cannot be asserted to be incorrect, all Roman being only a modification of Greek art, but the term Romano-Buddhist would be much more appropriate.

I cannot say what circumstances caused the establishment at Pesháwar of this peculiar local school, but I do not agree with Sir A. Cunningham in associating it with Kanishka and his immediate successors of the Kushán dynasty, A. D. 80 to 200. On the contrary, I am of opinion that the earliest works of the Romano-Buddhist school of Pesháwar date from about A. D. 200, and that all the sculptures of any considerable degree of artistic merit were executed between that date and A. D. 350. The style probably lingered in decay as late as A. D. 450, but not later.

It follows that I hold that there is a wide interval, at present unbridged, between the scanty remains of early Indo-Hellenic work in the Paujáb, and the abundant specimens of later Indo-Roman work.

The style of the Romano-Buddhist sculpture and architectural decoration shows some affinity with the style of the great temples at Palymra and Baalbee, belonging to the second and third centuries A. D., but its closest relationship, (and the connection is very close indeed), is with the Roman Christian sculpture of the period A. D. 250-450, as seen in the catacombs.

I am well aware that the opinions above expressed are open to dispute, and that I am liable to be thought over-venturesome for expressing them in such positive language. They are, however, the result of a careful and prolonged study of the subject, and I submit them for discussion in the confidence that a distinct expression of definite opinions will bring out clearly the issues to be decided, and prepare the way for final judgment.

Section VI. THE INDIAN SCHOOLS OF PAINTING.

The mention of an Indian school of painting must seem absurd to a reader acquainted only with modern India, where no trace of the existence of pictorial art can be discerned, unless the pretty, though conventional, miniatures which a few craftsmen at Dolhi are still able to execute, be counted as an exception.

The paintings exhibited in the show rooms of Rajas' palaces, and the decorations of modern temples and private houses are scarcely more deserving of the name of art than the caricatures scribbled by boys on the wall of their schoolroom. In the India of to-day painting and sculpture are both lost arts. The little feeling for beauty that survives is almost confined to small bodies of skilled artizans, and is with them rather the inherited aptitude of the members of a guild for the work of their trade, than a genuine artistic taste. This statement may seem very shocking to the amiable gentlemen who, of late years, have bestowed unmeasured praise upon the exthetic merits of Indian carpets, shawls, vases, and so forth, but 'tis true 'tis pity, and pity 'tis 'tis true.

My concern, however, is with the past rather than the present, and I must not tilt against South Kensington windmills. Whatever be the merits of modern productions, ancient India certainly produced paintings which deserve to be ranked as works of art. They do not, I believe, deserve a very high rank, when compared with the world's masterpieces-no Indian art work does-but they are entitled to a respectable place among the second or third class. The utter inability of the modern Hindú to express anything human or divine with either brush or chisel produces in the mind of the European observer in India a feeling of surprise when he finds a sculpture or painting which can be described as the work of an artist, and admits of comparison with the productions of Europe, and inclines him to exaggerate the merit of his treasure trove. The Gandhara or Peshawar sculptures, which have formed the principal subject of this paper, would be admitted by most persons competent to form an opinion, to be the best specimens of the plastic art ever known to exist in India. Yet even these are only echoes of the second rate Roman art of the third and fourth centuries. In the elaboration of minute, intricate, and often extremely pretty, ornamentation on stone, it is true, the Indian artists are second to none. The stone-cutters in Gándhára and at Amarávatí display the same skill in drawing elaborate patterns, and the same skill in executing them, which we now admire in the work of the modern carpet-weavers and But in the expression of human passions and emotions vase-makers. Indian art has completely failed, except during the time when it was held in Greeco-Roman leading strings, and it has scarcely at any time essayed an attempt to give visible form to any divine ideal.

Such being the deficiencies of Indian sculpture, the same may be looked for in Indian painting.

The sculptures of Gándhára, Amarávatí, and the Western Caves frequently show traces of paint, from which it appears that the Indians adopted the common Greek practice of using colour to heighten the effect of sculpture. No Indian coloured sculpture, however, has sufficiently retained the pigment to allow modern critics to judge of the effect produced. In Gándhára the gilder's art was freely employed, in addition to that of the painter, in order to add to the magnificence of sculpture. Such extraneous aids, whether employed by Greeks or Indians, seem to our modern taste derogatory rather than helpful to the dignity of sculpture, and, this being so, we need not regret the loss of the pigment and gilding, which would in our eyes have vulgarized sculptures, which we can honestly admire as they stand in naked stone.

But, besides these questionable expedients, the artists of ancient India knew how to supplement sculpture by the art of painting in forms recognized by all to be legitimate. Mr. Fergusson expresses the confident belief that paintings, such as are commonly called frescoes, contributed to the decoration of the Gándhára monasteries. It is very probable that his belief was well founded, but no scrap of any such painting has yet been found, and at present a Gándhára school of painting has only a hypothetical existence.

In Western India the destroying hand of time has been a little more merciful, and has spared enough of the ancient paintings to show that during the first five conturies of the Christian era India possessed artists who could paint pictures of, at least, respectable merit.

Fragments of paintings on walls and ceilings can be detected in the cave temples of the Bombay Presidency at several sites, but the only localities where intelligible pictures have survived, so far as is known at present, are Ajantá in the Nizam's dominions and Bágh in the district of Ráth in the south of Málwá. The paintings at the latter place are known only from brief descriptions in Messrs. Fergusson and Burgess' works, which are not sufficient to form the basis for critical discussion.*

Our knowledge of ancient Indian painting is practically restricted to the pictures on the walls and ceilings of the celebrated caves at Ajantá. No attempt has yet been made to discuss methodically these interesting

^{*} Cave Temples of India, pp. 363-366; and Notes on Bauddha Rock Temples of Ajantá, pp. 94, 95. Recently a series of remarkable Jain paintings has been discovered at Tirumalai, 30 miles south of Vellore in the Madras Presidency. The paintings belong to two distinct periods, but their dates have not yet been determined. (Proc. Govt. of Madras, No. 803, Public, dated 11th June, 1887.)

paintings, or to determine definitely their place in the history of art.* I think that any qualified critic who undertakes the study of these works will find that they are well worth attentive examination, from the points of view both of the archæologist and the artist, but such qualified critic, competent to grasp alike archæological and artistic problems, has not yet come forward.

I cannot protend to write a criticism on the Ajantá paintings. I have not had time to study them minutely, nor have I the technical knowledge requisite to enable me to determine their esthetic value. But I am fully persuaded that they are to be numbered among the fruits of foreign teaching, either by Greeks, or Roman pupils of Greek masters, and, holding this opinion, I cannot omit all notice of them from an essay which aims at giving a general, though imperfect, view of the manner and degree of Greec-Roman influence on the art and other elements of the civilization of aucient India.

At Ajantá fragments of painting exist in thirteen caves, but the principal remains are found in seven. "The Ajantá pictures are not frescoes in the true acceptation of the term. The painting was executed on a coat of thin, smooth plaster, the thickness of an egg-shell, which was laid on a groundwork composed of a mixture of cowdung and pulverized trap, rice-husks being sometimes added to increase the binding properties of the mixture."†

As regards the style of the pictures Mr. Griffiths' general criticism is to the effect that there is "little attention paid to the science of art—a general crowding of figures into a subject, regard being had more to

* The most competent account of the Ajantá paintings yet published is that given in the second work referred to in the preceding note. The full title of the book is "No. 9, Archaelogical Survey of Western India. Notes on the Bauddha Rock-Temples of Ajantá, their Paintings and Sculptures, and on the Paintings of the Bigh Cares, Modern Bauddha Mythology, etc. By J. Burgess, M. R. A. S., etc., Bombay, 4to.; Printed by order of Government at the Government Central Press, 1879." This work is now out of print, and sells at double its original price. It is illustrated by twenty-nine plates, uncoloured, fifteen of which are devoted to the paintings.

Four pretty good uncoloured plates illustrate Dr. Rájendralála Mitra's paper on the paintings in Vol. XLVII (1878) of the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

The architecture and sculpture of the Ajantá caves are discussed with great fulness in Vol. IV of the Reports of the Archæological Survey of Western India, and are there illustrated by splendid autotype plates, but the paintings are scarcely noticed in that volume.

The volume of Notes, the full title of which has been given above, belongs to a series of minor treatises in paper covers, issued by the Bombay Government preliminary to the publication of the costly and elaborate series of Reports.

† Indian Antiquary, Vol. II, p. 152.

the truthful rendering of a story than to a beautiful rendering of it:—
not that they discarded beauty, but they did not make it the primary
motive of representation."*

The range of date of the Ajanta paintings is very nearly the same as that of the Gándhára sculptures, though some of the former are earlier, and some may be a hundred years, or even more, later than any of the latter. The earliest paintings at Ajantá, those on the side walls of Cave No. X, are referred by Mr. Burgess to the latter part of the second century A. D. To a large extent the Gándhára and Ajantá works are certainly contemporary, and it is prima facie probable that, if the sculptures echo the ideas of the art of imperial Rome, paintings of the same period should not have escaped the influence of the cosmopolitan canons of taste which then determined the forms of art. I am not prepared to prove in detail the Greek or Roman parentage of the Ajantá paintings, but I have little doubt that critical study will prove them to be more Roman than Greek. Their realism, on which Mr. Griffiths comments, is one of the most characteristic features of the Gándhára sculptures, and is thoroughly Roman. Some of the panels, too, filled with elegant floral decorations are extremely like Roman work in appearance.

The Gándhára sculptures are so closely related to the Christian sculptures in the Catacombs of Rome, that I venture to suggest that it would be worth while to compare the paintings in the Catacombs with those in the Ajantá caves. A hasty comparison of copies of both led me to suppose that they might be related, but I am not in a position to offer a definite opinion on the subject.

The neglect of years has, it is understood, in great part destroyed the original paintings at Ajantá, and, unfortunately, the fine copies in oils, on which Major Gill spent many years, were mostly consumed by the fire at the Crystal Palace in 1860. A few of his copies then escaped, but, I believe, perished in a later fire at South Kensington. Mr. Griffiths, of the Bombay School of Art, has since made a fresh set of copies of a portion of the paintings, and these copies are now exhibited in the Indian Museum at South Kensington. The ordinary visitor, how ever, can be little impressed by them, in the absence of descriptive labels or catalogue to indicate the history, meaning, or artistic value of the paintings. I should add that, notwithstanding his remarks on the subordinate place given to beauty as compared with realism in the Ajantá paintings generally, Mr. Griffiths bestows very high praise on particular compositions, and his judgment is supported by the great authority of Mr.

^{*} Indian Antiquary, Vol. III, pp. 25-28. So far as I am aware, Mr. Griffiths' report has not been published in full. Considerable extracts from it are given in the Indian Antiquary, and in Mr. Burgess' Notes.

Fergusson. One of the most remarkable paintings is in the hall of Cave No. XVI, and is supposed to date from the sixth century. The subject is the death of a lady, apparently a princess. The treatment of it has elicited from Mr. Fergusson the comment that "Mr. Griffiths very justly remarks on this picture that for pathos and sentiment and the unmistakeable way of telling its story this picture, I consider, cannot be surpassed in the history of art. The Florentines could have put better drawing, and the Venetians better colour, but neither could have thrown greater expression into it." "*

Mr. Fergusson also quotes with approval the criticism of Mr. Griffiths on a painting depicting flying figures in the so-called Zodiac Cave, No. XVII:—

"Whether we look at its purity of outline, or the elegance of the grouping, it is one of the most pleasing of the smaller paintings at Ajantá, and more nearly approaches the form of art found in Italy in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries than any other example there. The easy upward motion of the whole group is rendered in a manner that could not easily be surpassed."

Whether these panegyries are overstrained or not I shall not attempt to decide, but I am fully persuaded that no art at all deserving of such praise was ever born on Indian soil.

"India, meditated, brooded, elaborated, but the originating imagination is not found in the dream-life."

Whoever seriously undertakes the critical study of the paintings at Ajanta and Bágh will find, I have no doubt, that the artists drew their inspiration from the West, and, I think, he will also find that their style is a local development of the cosmopolitan art of the contemporary Roman Empire.

· Section VII. THE ART OF COINAGE IN INDIA.

The opinion expressed by Lenormant that the mechanical process of coining money, properly so called, was unknown to the Indians until they learned it from the Greeks after the invasion of Alexander, was vigorously combated by the late Mr. Thomas on several occasions, and, in my judgment, with success.§

- * Cave Temples of India, p. 307.
- + Cave Temples of India, p. 311.
- ‡ This quotation is taken from a letter of my friend Dr. R. Atkinson, the learned Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Dublin.
- § The question is discursively treated in Mr. Thomas' papers on the Earliest Indian Coinage and on Ancient Indian Weights in the Numismatic Chronicle for 1884, and in his revised edition of the latter paper in the first volume of the International Numismata Orientalia.

The truth seems to be that, though all ancient Indian coinages with the slightest pretensions to artistic merit are ultimately of Greek origin, yet the idea of coining money, and a knowledge of the simple mechanical processes necessary for the production of rude coins originated independently in India, or, at the least, were not borrowed from the Greeks.

Although I agree with Mr. Thomas and Sir A. Cunningham in rejecting the theory of the Greek descent of all Indian coins without exception, it must be admitted that it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to prove that any particular ancient Indian coin now extant is older than the time of Alexander the Great. Sir A. Cunningham has ventured more than once on the bold assertion respecting the so-called 'punch-marked' coins, that "many of them are as old as 1000 B. C., and perhaps even older."*

When it is remembered that no stone building, sculpture, or inscription anywhere in India is known to exist which is older than the reign of Aśoka, some seventy years after the invasion of Alexander the Great, it is clear that a claim on behalf of a coin to an antiquity of 1000 B. C. is very difficult to substantiate. Nothing in India exists, which can be compared with it, that is not seven and a half centuries later in date. The supposition that any Indian coins are to be dated 1000 B. C. is a mere guess, unsupported by a single fact. I cannot venture to name any other date for the beginnings of Indian coinage, for the reason that nothing really is known on the subject. It is possible that certain coins may be very old, but they cannot be proved to be so, and the independent origin of Indian coinage cannot be demonstrated by showing that any given extant piece is older than Alexander. I do not know of the existence of any Indian coin which may not possibly be later than his time.

The really valid reason for denying the Greek origin of the art of of coinage in India is that several classes of early Indian coins do not exhibit a single clear trace of Greek influence, whereas they are plainly marked by special Indian characteristics.

The coinage of India in its most primitive form consisted of small, oblong, roughly rectangular plates of silver, without any impression on the surface, but struck to a definite standard of weight, namely, 32 ratis, or $58\frac{1}{3}$ grains. A slight improvement was made when these little plates of silver were stamped with rough devices of stars, trees, and so forth. These devices were impressed by means of small punches, not covering the face of the coin, and sometimes it appears that all the various patterns on the surface of a single piece, were not executed at once, but were impressed successively at different times by the aid of several

^{*} Archæol. Rep., Vol. I, p. 70; II, pp. 229, 264, 288.

punches. Coins of this kind, which were struck both in silver and copper, are, therefore, known to Indian numismatists as 'punchmarked' coins. Like the blanks, which presumably preceded them, they are struck to the Indian standard of 32 ratis. This standard cannot, I believe, be in any way connected with the Greek metric system. The punch-marked coins are destitute of legends, but the purely Indian character of their devices and their Indian standard of weight render it incredible that they should be the result of Greek influence.

Other early Indian coins with a general resemblance to the punchmarked pieces were either east in a mould or struck with a die covering the face of the coin, and some few of the oldest of such cast and diestruck coins, which follow Indian standards of weight, are inscribed with characters of the form current in the days of A. The devices of these coins are as indigenous as those of the punch-marked class.*

It is, I venture to suggest, by no means unlikely that the use of legends on coins was suggested by Greck example. The earliest inscribed Indian coins are proved by the characters used in their brief legends to belong approximately to the period of Aśoka, whose inscriptions are the earliest examples of the use of the alphabet, afterwards known as Devanágari. The history of that alphabet has not yet been satisfactorily traced, and the sudden appearance of long and complicated records inscribed in its characters during the reign of Aśoka is an unexplained mystery. The simultaneous first appearance on Indian soil of stone architecture and stone sculpture in the same reign is another mystery. But, however mysterious be the exact origin of all these sudden innovations, it is tolerably clear that they were in some way the result of the foreign, especially the Greek, influences which certainly affected the policy both of Asoka and his grandfather. It seems to be a plausible conjecture that the introduction of coin legends about the same time was another effect of the same potent foreign forces.

However this may be, the various kinds of early coins, to which I have alluded above, bear no other mark whatever of foreign origin. It is, therefore, reasonable to conclude that the art of manufacturing

* For discussion of these early Indian coins see the above quoted essays by Mr. Thomas. In Cunningham's Archeol. Rep., Vol. VI, pp. 213-220, Mr. Carlleyle has attempted a classification of the punch-marked coins, the weights of which are discussed by Sir A. Cunningham in ibid., Vol. XIV, p. 16. The classes of early coins found at Eran are discussed and figured in ibid., Vol. X, p. 77, Pl. XXIV. See also ibid., Vol. II, p. 10; V, p. 154, Pl. XXXI, and VI, p. 167. But the numismatic history of India remains to be written. I assume 1.825 grain as the best established value for the rati, for the reasons stated in Journal As. Soc. of Benyal Vol. LIII, part I, p. 146.

such rude coins was invented in India independently of Greek teaching. But this conclusion does not prove that any such coins should be assigned to a very remote period. It is quite impossible to say when the use of blank or punch-marked rectangular pieces of silver or copper of definite weight began, and it is difficult to say when it ended. I suspect that in out-of-the-way corners of India the old-fashioned punch-marked pieces continued to be struck centuries after coins of more regular fabric had become familiar in the more advanced parts of the country, and that specimens of the ancient, indigenous coinage long continued in circulation side by side with pieces struck in imitation of foreign models. the present day the people of the districts between Fyzabad and Patna obstinately cling to the custom of using the clumsy, mis-shapen lumps of copper, known as 'dumpy' or 'Gorakhpuri pice,' and refuse to circulate the well-executed, and, to European notions, convenient copper coinage issued from the British mints. During the past year the Government of India has found itself compelled to make an effort to suppress by law the currency of the unauthorized 'dumpy pice.' The mere form, then, of any given punch-marked or other rude uninscribed coin is a very imperfect test of its age.

So far as I can learn, no definite evidence is producible to show that any Indian coin now extant is of earlier date than B. C. 300. The complete absence of all traces of foreign influence on the Indian coins of the most primitive form renders probable the hypothesis that some of them were struck before India entered into at all intimate relations with the peoples of the West, but that is the most that can at present be said in favour of the alleged extreme antiquity of some Indian coins. The arguments of Mr. Thomas, so far as they are based on the references to coins in the Code of Manu and other early Sanskrit books, cannot be regarded as valid, when viewed in the light of modern research into the chronology of Sanskrit literature.

The rare, but now well-known coins of Sophytes, a prince in the Panjáb, who was contemporary with Alexauder the Great, are rather earlier than any indigenous Indian coins can be proved to be, and are altogether Greek in device and legend, though perhaps not in weight-standard. They are modelled on the pattern of coins of the Seleucid kings of Syria.*

The extensive mintages of the Græco-Bactrian kings (from B. C. 246 to circa B. C. 25) were mostly issued in countries beyond the limits of India, but long circulated freely in the Panjáb, the valley of the Ganges, and the ports of the western coast.

^{*} Gardner, Catalogue of Coins of Greek and Scythic kings of Bactria and India, p. xx.

No known coin can be determined to have been issued by the great Aśoka or any member of his dynasty. The few legends found on coins of the period give no clue to the name of the reigning sovereign. Aśoka must have struck coin to a large extent during his long reign, and, as not a single piece bearing his name has been found, the only possible conclusion is, that the bulk of his coinage consisted of the rude, uninscribed pieces above referred to. These coins were struck, as we have seen, to the Indian standard, and they circulated side by side with the Græco-Bactrian issues, specimens of which are found in large numbers all over Northern India.

The general adaptation in India of Greek or Greeco-Roman types of coinage was the result of the Indo-Scythian invasions about the beginning of the Christian et a. The indigenous Indian coinage consisted of silver and copper. I cannot undertake to say that gold coins were absolutely unknown in India before the Indo-Scythian invasions, but, if they existed, they were insignificant in quantity, for not a single specimen of them has ever been discovered. The earliest gold coins struck in India, which follow the indigenous scale of weights, are the heavy coins of Chandra Gupta II of the Gupta dynasty, and these are not earlier than A. D. 400. All coins of the Gupta dynasty are die-struck, and their outward form, whether they follow the Indian or the Greek weight-standard, is ultimately derived from Greek originals.**

The Indo-Scythian kings introduced a regular gold currency into India and struck vast quantities of gold coins, as well as of copper. Their gold coins combine various foreign elements, but are essentially Roman aurei, equivalent to Greek staters. The Gupta coinage is related to the Indo-Scythian, and its devices exhibit faint traces of Greek artistic power as late as A. D. 400. After the break-up of the Gupta empire about A. D. 480, the coinage of India became utterly barbarous, and lost all marks of Hellenic influence on design, legend, or standard.

As regards the origin of coinage in India my opinion, in short, is that the art of coinage in rude forms arose in India quite independently of Greek teaching. Neither the invasion of Alexander the Great, nor the example of his Bactrian successors sufficed to induce the princes of India to abandon their indigenous style of coinage. One petty chief in the Panjáb, Sophytos by name, struck coins after the Greek fashion, but found no imitators in the interior of India. Aśoka and the other sovereigns of the Maurya dynasty continued to issue coins of the old native pattern, on which they did not even inscribe their names.

* For information in detail about the Gupts coinage I must refer to my paper on the Early or Imperial Gupts Dynasty of Northern India in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1889, pp. 1-158, with five plates.

The general (though not universal) adaptation of Greek numismatic forms copied from Roman coins was the work of the Indo-Scythian dynastics, whose rule in the Panjáb began a little before the Christian cra, and spread over all Northern India during the three following centuries. The introduction of coins of Greek type was synchronous with the development of an extensive gold currency, which partly replaced, and partly supplemented the existing issues in other metals.

The Gupta coinage A. D. 350 to 480 is a development of the Indo-Scythian.

From the fall of the Gupta empire to the establishment of the Muhammadan power all Indian coinages are barbarous and chaotic, and completely destitute of artistic merit.*

The die-cutters of India never attained any high degree of excellence in their art. Those of Bactria, as distinguished from India, produced coins, not, indeed, approaching in beauty those of Syracuse, but possessing characteristics which entitle them to respectful consideration as works of art.

Professor Gardner observes;—"In the types used by Greek kings we find great variety, and they open to us quite a new chapter of Greek art, affording fresh proof of the remarkable originality of the artists of the Hollenistic age.

"In regard to the style we may note two points: (1). The extraordinary realism of their portraiture. The portraits of Demetrins (pl. II, 9), of Antimachus, (V, 1), and of Eucratides, (V, 7), are among the most remarkable which have come down to us from antiquity, and the effect of them is heightened in each case by the introduction of a peculiar and strongly characteristic head-dress, which is rendered with scrupulous exactness of detail.

"(2). The decidedly Praxitelean character of the full length on the reverses. The figures of Herakles (pl. II, 9; III, 3), of Zeus (IV, 4; VII, 2), of Poseidon, (V, 1), of Apollo (V, 4; IX, 10), are all in their attitudes characteristic of the school of Praxiteles."

Some of the Bactrian coins were struck within the limits of the territories now known as India, but most of them were minted beyond the border, and the Bactrian coinage, as a whole, is foreign to India.

- * My remarks must be understood as applying only to Northern India in the widest sense. The system of coinage in Southern India has always been quite distinct, and I do not profess to have studied its history. The Peninsula was never brought into really close political relations with Northern India until the establishment of the British supremacy. Even Aurangzíb's protracted campaigns did little to bridge over the gulf between the two regions.
 - † Catalogue of Coins of Greek and Scythic kings of Bactria and India, p. lviii.

I do not propose to discuss its relations with the general course of Greek art, and refer to its peculiarities only to enquire how far they affected the art of coinage in India.

The realistic portraits executed by the Bactrian artists were beyond the powers of the Indian die-cutters. The Indo-Scythian coins, except the very latest, are well executed pieces of metal work, but, without exception, almost totally wanting in artistic morit. The effigies of the kings are conventional, and the whole design is stiff and formal. Some of the Gupta coins display more freedom and originality in design, but not a single example of a recognizable portrait can be found, I believe, either in the Indo-Scythian or Gupta series.

The influence of the second peculiarity of the Bactrian coinage noted by Professor Gardner can be discerned in the Gupta series, though not, I think, in the Indo-Scythian. The peculiar attitude of the standing statues of the school of Praxiteles consists in this that the weight of the body is thrown on one leg, the figure being inclined to one side, and bent in a graceful curve so that the hip on the other side is arched outwards. This peculiarity, which in the hands of a good Greek artist, added grace to the representation of the human form, was imitated by the Grace-Bactrian mint masters with considerable success. It caught the Indian taste, but, in the hands of clumsy imitators, was converted into a hideous deformity. An inartistic exaggeration of the Praxitelean attitude is characteristic of many of the Gupta coins of the fifth century, and of much Indian sculpture from an early date until the present day.

Unhappily the history of Indian art, is, as observed by Mr. Fergusson, a history of decay, and the criticism, passed by Sir A. Cunningham on Indian sculpture, applies, mutatis mntandis, to other arts:—

"It is a fact, which receives fresh proofs every day, that the art of sculpture, or certainly of good sculpture, appeared suddenly in India at the very time that the Greeks were masters of the Kábul valley, that it retained its superiority during the Greek and half-Greek rule of the Indo-Scythians, and that it deteriorated more and more the further it receded from the Greek ago, until the degradation culminated in the wooden inanities and bestial obscenities of the Brahmanical temples."*

The employment of fairly well-executed Greek legends on the coins of the Indo-Scythian kings of the first two centuries of our era proves that the opithet 'half-Greek' applied to their rule by Sir A. Cunningham is not unsuitable. Kanishka and his successors would not have impressed Greek legends on their coins, unless the Greek language had considerable currency among their subjects. I do not, of course, mean

^{*} Archwol. Rep., Vol. III, p. 100.

to suggest that Greek was over commonly spoken or read in India, but it must certainly have been understood by many of the court officials. The language in the time of Kanishka and Huvishka probably occupied a position similar to that of the English language in India forty or fifty years ago, previous to the development of the existing system of public instruction.

The knowledge of Greek seems to have lingered longest in Gujarát. Corrupt Greek letters are found on the silver coins of Skanda Gupta struck in that region as late as A. D. 450, and they also occur on similar coins of his father and grandfather. The letters on these coins are unmistakeably Greek in form, but meaningless, and are evidently imitations of legends, which were once significant, executed by mon unable to read Greek. It is plain, therefore, that even on the western coast, where the agency of maritime commerce had for centuries maintained an active intercourse with the Hellenistic world, all knowledge of the Greek language had died out by A. D. 400. In Northern India such knowledge seems to have been lost two centuries earlier.

It is curious that not a single Greek inscription, other than coinlegends, has yet been discovered either in India or in Afghánistán.

The numismatic facts, to which I have briefly referred, help to render credible and intelligible the alleged Greek influence on Indian literature, science, and philosophy, to the consideration of which I shall now devote a few pages.

Section VIII. THE ORIGIN OF THE INDIAN DRAMA.

The existence of a considerable ancient dramatic literature in the Sanskrit language was made known to European readers at the close of the last century by Sir William Jones' translation of Sakuntalá, a charming pastoral play, which is, perhaps, the only Sanskrit work that has taken a place among the literary classics of the world.

Since Sir William Jones' time the Sanskrit plays have attracted many students and translators, notably Horace Hayman Wilson, whose well-known work, Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindus, is still the leading authority on the subject.

The question of the origin and affinities of the ancient Indian drama has excited the curiosity of scholars, from the time of its discovery until the present day, and various attempts have been made to solve the problem.

The circumstance that the Sanskrit name for a dramatic composition is derived from a root which conveys the idea of dancing naturally suggested the theory, which readily found favour, that "the Indian drama arose, after the manner of our modern drama in the Middle Ages,

out of religious solemnities and spectacles (so-called 'mysteries'), and also that dancing originally subserved religious purposes."*

But this plausible theory has, unfortunately, very little historical basis, and a rival theory that the dramatic literature of India is a direct descendant of the cpic seems not to rest on any more solid foundation.

It is not improbable that rude pantomimic representations of the incidents of sacred stories, resembling the modern Rámlílá, may have been as popular in ancient times as they are now, but even if they were, they could hardly be regarded as the parent of the Indian drama. Such exhibitions in their modern form, of which alone anything is known, remain unchanged from year to year, and appear quite incapable of literary development. Their ancient predecessors, if any existed, cannot be credited with any greater power of generating literature. The Sanskrit drama includes pastorals, elaborate comedies of real life, complex pictures of political intrigue, and other varieties of highly artificial composition. The gap between such compositions and a clumsy 'mystery' like the Rámlílá is vast and unbridged, and the interval between them and displays of sacred dancing or formal recitations of epic episodes is equally wide.

The Indian drama, as Professor Weber remarks, "meets us in an already finished form, and with its best productions." Whence came this finished form; was the ripe fruit not preceded by seed or flower?

It is impossible to believe that the "finished form" sprang, Minerva like, from the head of Kálídása. The dramatic literature of India, like all other ripe productions of art in all countries and ages, must be either the result of an independent, and therefore slow, process of evolution worked out on native soil, or be the more sudden effect of the fertilization of an indigenous germ by a potent foreign influence.

The latter solution of the problem, is, I have no doubt, the true one. It is not easy to disentangle the life history of the indigenous germ, concerning the true affinities of which opinions may well differ,‡

- * Weber, History of Indian Literature. (Trübner), p. 197. This theory is well expressed in the brilliant article on Sanskrit Poetry and the Hindu Drama by Dean Milman, which appeared in the Quarterly Review for 1831. Dean Milman considered that the Indian plays more closely resembled the Spanish than those of any other European country.
- † Brockhaus, who denies all Greek influence on the Indian drama, maintains the epic theory. I have not seen his writings.
- ‡ Windisch himself (p. 6) admits that the Epics contain a dramatic element, and that the Indian drama was indebted to some extent, as the Greek also was, to the epos for help. He is of opinion (p. 8) that dramatic representations, based on epic stories, existed in India before foreign influences were felt, such representations being simply due to the natural desire to see, as well as hear, the stories. This

but the vivifying foreign influence can be isolated, and subjected to microscopic investigation.

That foreign influence which gave India her noble dramatic literature is the same which bestowed upon her the arts of the painter, sculptor, and engraver—the undying spirit of Hellas. India received this, her spiritual guest, but for a little while and grudgingly. When he took wing and fled to more congenial dwelling places the arts soon followed in his train.

Professor Weber was the first to suggest that the representation of Greek dramas at the courts of the Hellenistic kings in Bactria, the Panjáb, and Gujarát awakened the Hindú faculty of imitation, and thus led to the birth of the Indian drama; but the suggestion was qualified, and almost negatived, by the remarks appended to it that the hypothesis does not admit of direct verification, and that no internal connection between the Greek and Indian dramatic literature can be proved.

The Danish scholar, E. Brandes, accepted the hypothesis thus doubtingly propounded, and, rejecting the limitations imposed by its author, boldly undertook to prove the reality of an internal connection between the ancient Indian plays and the New Attic Comedy, as chiefly preserved in the Roman adaptations by Plantus and Terence. I have not seen Dr. Brandes' treatise, nor could I read it if I had, but, fortunately for that large class of persons who are ignorant of Danish, substantially the same thesis has been ably argued by Dr. Windisch in a language more generally intelligible.*

It would be impossible to do full justice to Dr. Windisch's argument otherwise than by a complete translation of his essay. I shall merely attempt to indicate in general terms the nature of some of the leading proofs on which he relies in support of the proposition that the Sanskrit drama is of Greec-Roman parentage.

The general probabilities in favour of the theory that the Indian plays are derivatives of the New Attic Comedy of the school of Menander rest chiefly on the evidence which proves an active and long-continued intercourse between the east and west. Some of this evidence has already been considered (ante, p. 157). A special agency for the diffusion of knowledge of the forms of Greek drama among Oriental popu-

opinion seems to be pure conjecture, and is not shared by my learned friend Professor Atkinson. Windisch also holds (p. 10) that epic recitation, and not a lyrical performance associated with music and dancing, was the germ of the Indian drama.

^{*} Der Griechische Ernfuss im Indischen Drama. Von Ernst Windisch. Aus den Abhandlungen des Borliner Orientalisten-Congresses. 8vo, pp. 106. Berlin, A. Asher and Co, Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, 1882.

lations was furnished by the travelling companies of players, who are known to have traversed the Hellenistic kingdoms; and the poets, as well as the players, were not averse to travelling. Menander and Philemon were both invited to the court of Ptolemy Soter.

Greek ideas entered India chiefly by two routes, one overland through Palmyra and Bactria, the other maritime through Alexandria and the ports of the western coast, especially Barygaza, the modern Bharoch. We know from the anonymous Periplus of the Erythræan Sea, which was written between A. D. 80 and 89,* that a very active commerce was then carried on between Barygaza and the inland city Ozéné (the modern Ujjain in Sindia's territory), where Asoka had once been Viceroy, and which, in the time of the anthor of the Periplus, was the great depôt of the foreign trade.

The scene of the 'Toy-Cart,' the most ancient Indian drama extant, is laid at Ujjain, and several considerations lead Dr. Windisch to conclude that the Indian drama was first developed at that city, as a direct consequence of intercourse with Alexandria. The few known facts in the history of the Bactrian king Menander, who flourished about B. C. 110,† indicate that the overland communication between India and the West must have been briskly maintained in his time. The importance of Palmyra as a commercial depôt (ante, p. 157) was of later date. Before the Christian era the Western communications of India were with the Hellenized kingdoms of Asia and Egypt. In the first century after the Christian era they were extended to Rome and the Roman provinces. It is, in my opinion, not at all unlikely that the New Attic Comedy was known to learned men in India through the Latin adaptations of Plautus and Terence as well as in the original Greek.

Whether it be admitted or not that the Indian drama is of foreign origin, no one, I suppose, will venture to deny that ample opportunities existed during several centuries for the importation of all sorts of Greek ideas, dramatic or other.

In the opinion of Dr. Windisch the cumulative effect of the evidence of resemblance in particular points between the Indian and Greeco-Roman dramas is so great that "we must recognize either a wonderful case of pre-established harmony, or the existence of Greek influence on the Indian drama." The dilemma appears to me to be expressed with perfect accuracy, and I am fully convinced of the reality of the Greek

^{*} The proof is given in the Introduction to McCrindle's translation.

[†] This is the date adopted by Professor Gardner in his Catalogue of Coins of the Greek and Scythic kings of Bactria and India.

influence on the Sanskrit drama, and further, that without that influence the dramatic literature of India would never have come into existence.

The formal structure of the Sanskrit dramas closely resombles that with which we are familiar in Plautus and Terence. Like the Græco-Roman, the Indian plays are divided into acts and scenes, and each piece is preceded by a prologue. The mere fact of the existence of the prologue in the Indian, as in the Europeau plays, is in itself surprising, and can hardly be regarded as a merely casual coincidence. The improbability that it is such becomes much greater when we observe that in both cases the prologue is devoted to the same purposes, the announcement of the names of the poet and the play, the gaining fuvour of the spectators, and the preparation of their minds for the piece itself.

Again, it cannot well be the result of accident that the love-story of the Indian drama is in plot, development, and dinouement essentially of the same kind as that of Græco-Roman comedy. The plot of the 'Toy-cart,' the most ancient Indian play extant, may be accurately described in the words applied by Rost to the Curculio of Plautus:— "The subject of this comedy is very simple, and depends, as usual, on a secret intrigue, the lover's want of money, and the supplanting of a rival."

The fair Perditas of Plantus and Terence, who eventually prove to be high-born daughters of Athenian citizens, find their parallel in the maid-servants of the Indian plays (Múlavikáynimitra and Ratnávalí), who turn out to be princesses in disguise; and the ἀναγνωρισμός, or recognition of the disguised young lady, which is a critical incident in nearly every Græco-Roman play, is repeated, merely with variations of detail, in the Indian adaptations.

Other stock characters of the Terentian comedy have also been imported into the Sanskrit drama.

The parasitus edax, the miles gloriosus, and the servus currens, so familar to all readers of the Greec-Roman comedies, are reproduced respectively as the vita, śakára, and vidúshaka of the earliest Indian drama. The external origin of these strongly marked characters, is clearly indicated by the facts that the three personages are found together only in the 'Toy-cart,' the oldest drama, which was composed while India was still in communication with the Hellenistic world, and that all three were discarded by Bhavabhúti, who lived about A. D. 700, when Greek influence had ceased to directly affect India. Dr. Windisch's detailed analysis of these characters is very interesting, but is too long for reproduction.

One striking argument, however, must not be omitted. The Sans-

krit author Bharata, who wrote a technical treatise (nútyasástra) on dramatic art, lays down the rule that the players should be five in number, namely, the sútradhára, his assistant, the páripárswaka, the vita, śakára, and vidúshaka. This enumeration, Dr. Windisch points out, is equivalent to a list of the regular male personnel of a Græco-Roman play, but does not apply to any extant Indian play, except in so far that all the five personages named appear in the 'Toy-cart,' in which alone the śakára is found. The vita is met with in only one other piece (Núgánanda). It is therefore difficult to understand why Bharata should have laid down this rule, unless pieces were extant in his time which conformed to it, and these pieces must have resembled the Greek models at least as closely as the 'Toy-cart' does.

The repulsive character of the lena, or μαστροπός, the go-between and corrupter of maiden virtue, is faithfully reproduced in the character of the mother of Vasantasená in the 'Toy-cart,' and the elevation of Vasantasená herself to a respectable position by the force of unselfish love may be compared with the story of Silenium in the Cistellaria of Plautus. The very name of the 'Toy-cart' (mrichchhakatiká) recalls the names of Plautine plays such as Anlularia and Cistellaria.

The essay by Dr. Windisch, from which I have quoted, does not exhaust all the arguments which might be adduced in support of his thesis, and the partial analysis of his reasoning given above is far from presenting the case, as stated by him, in its full force. Yet, even what has been advanced in the foregoing pages should, I venture to think, suffice to shake the faith of those who believe in the indigenous origin of the Sanskrit drama, and to prove that strong reasons exist for holding the opinion that India is indebted for the existence of the most generally attractive department in the vast circle of her literature to contact with the artistic Hellenic mind.

It is, perhaps, necessary to observe that no one contends that any extant Indian play is a translation or free adaptation of a given Greek piece. That certainly is not the case. The best-Indian plays are the work of native genius of high order, employing native materials in its own way, and for its own ends, but first set in motion by a powerful impulse received from abroad. The case of the drama is analogous to that of the Amarávatí sculptures. I agree with Mr. Fergusson in thinking that those sculptures would never have come into existence, if the latent powers of Indian artists had not been aroused and stimulated by the example and teaching of Greek, or at least of Hellenistic, sculptors, but no one would maintain that the carvings now on the staircase of the British Museum should be classed among the remains of Greek art. They are thoroughly Indian in subject and style, and skilled criticism

is needed to discern the hidden foreign element. So it is with the drama. The plays are Indian, but the idea of composing such plays is Greek.

The case of the sculptures of the Gándhára or Pesháwar school, which I have discussed at such length, is on the contrary, analogous rather to an Indian free translation or adaptation of a Greek play. Those sculptures are close imitations of the contemporary, especially the Christian, art of the Roman empire in the third and fourth centuries, and this fact lies on the surface, visible to any commonly attentive observer. The Roman or Christian subjects have been made to serve Buddhist purposes, but have been transferred bodily to India with little change, save that of name.

Section IX. GREGO-ROMAN INFLUENCE ON THE RELIGION, MYTHOLOGY, SCIENCE, AND PHILOSOPHY OF INDIA. CONCLUSION.

A smile will, I fear, pass over the gentle reader's countenance when he compares the promise of the title with the performance of the few pages of this section of my essay. A discussion, in any degree adequate, of the topics mentioned in the heading would require the ample room of an octavo to itself, the writer of which should be equipped with a store of varied knowledge to the possession of which I can make no pretension. So far as I am aware, no one has yet attempted such a survey of the religion, mythology, science, and philosophy of India as would give a general view of the boundaries which divide the indigenous components from the foreign. A slight, rough sketch of a survey of the kind will be found in Weber's History of Indian Literature, but a map drawn in more distinct colours is much wanted. attempt to draw it. The preceding pages will, perhaps, have succeeded in convincing at least some readers that the best elements in the plastic, pictorial, numismatic, and dramatic arts of ancient India are of foreign, chiefly Greeco-Roman, origin. In these concluding pages I merely wish to point out that the foreign influence was not confined to those fields, where I have traced its workings in some detail, but extended also to other regions of thought. I am not prepared to follow in detail its operations within those regions, nor to catalogue the instances where its presence may be discerned, and can only offer some unsystematic observations.

The Indo-Scythian coin series affords obvious and conclusive evidence that about the beginning of the Christian era the religions of India and those of the neighbouring countries to the west were acting and re-acting upon each other.

The worship of Siva was certainly then established among

other cults, in India, and the figure of the god, armed with his trident, and standing beside his sacred bull, is, perhaps, the commonest mythological device of the Indo-Scythian coins. But he is not exactly the Siva of the medieval Puránas, a Hinduized aboriginal demon. Sometimes he is hardly to be distinguished from the Greek Poseidon, and the Greek writers on India themselves perceived that he was akin to Dionysus. Dr. Windisch shows that all the Sanskrit plays are associated with the worship either of Siva or his consort Gaurí, and that they were generally performed, like the Greek dramas, at the spring festival. It seems probable that the Hellenistic settlers in India transferred to Siva some of the honour due to Dionysus, and the idea of the Indian deity must have been influenced by the Greek conception of those gods in the Olympic pantheon who most nearly resembled him.

Some rare coins of the great Indo-Seythian emperor, Kanishka, bear the name of Buddha, BOVAO in Greek characters, and afford us the earliest known examples of the conventional efligy of the teacher.

Other Indo-Seythian coins, again, present figures of the personified Sun and Moon, as Greek deities, with their Greek names Helios and Seléne, while many others represent a pantheon of Iranian deities, bearing such strange names as Oksho (Okro), Ardethro, and so forth, the meaning of which is only now beginning to be understood. I cannot here pursue this topic further, and only allude to it for the purpose of indicating that both a little before, and a little after, the Christian era Hellenic and Asiatic forms of religion were interacting, and that both Buddhism and Hinduism must have been modified by the contact with other modes of religious belief.

Even so late as A. D. 400 the devices of the Gupta coins show that the conceptions of Hindú divinities were partly based on Graco-Roman ideas. Lakshmí, the goddess of plenty and good fortune, is invested with attributes plainly borrowed from the $\tau \dot{\nu} \chi \eta$, Abundantia, and other personifications of abstract ideas current in the west. The conception of Lakshmí, the consort of Vishnu, glides imperceptibly into that of Párvatí, Durgá, or Gaurí, the consort of Siva, and is related to some of the forms both of Venus and Cybelé.*

The apparent resemblances between the Puranic legend of Krishna and the Gospel accounts of Christ are well known, and have formed the subject of much discussion. I am inclined to believe that the Krishna myth is really indebted to the Gospels for some of its incidents.

^{*} For the Indo-Scythian coins see Gardner's Catalogue, and articles by Stein, Cunningham, West, and Rapson in the Babylonian and Oriental Record for 1888 and 1889, and Indian Antiquary for April 1888. For the Gupta coinage see Journal R. As. Soc. for 1889, p. 25, etc.

In the early centuries of the Christian era the religion of Christ in one or other of its forms extended over many parts of Asia where it is now extinct, and it must have modified the ideas and beliefs of the peoples among whom it flourished. The Gnostic variety or corruption of Christianity was especially popular in the East, and strong reasons exist for believing in Gnostic influence on the Vedantist philosophy of India. The Bhagavad-Gítá certainly seems to have much in common with the Gospels.*

The extraordinarily close resemblance between many of the sculptures of the Gándhára or Pesháwar school, and the monuments of early Christian art at Rome, which was first observed by Mr. Fergusson, has been discussed at some length in an earlier section of this paper (ante, p. 164). The resemblance is certainly real, and, however it may be explained, proves with equal certainty that the Christian and the Buddhist artists had many ideas in common. The Buddhism of Gándhára beyond doubt borrowed Christian forms of artistic expression; it would be strange if the Buddhist teachers did not assimilate, along with the forms, some Christian doctrine. But any attempt to follow this speculation further would carry me beyond my depth.

The Gandhara adaptation of Leochares' group representing the Rape of Ganymede (ante, p. 133) shows clearly how easy it was for the ancient Indians to adopt a Greek myth, and convert it to the use of their own religions.

Weber maintains that a substratum of Homeric legend underlies the Rámáyana, and gives good reasons for his opinion. The mere fact that such a suggestion can be supported by plausible arguments indicates that the student of comparative mythology must be careful not to assume the Indian origin of every myth which may have on the surface a purely Indian appearance.

I have shown above (ante, p. 133) that the Asuras of Puránic mythology are probably Hinduized adaptations of the Greek giants, who warred with the gods:

The remarkable fact that no images of Buddha are found among sculptures at Bhárhut (B. C. 150), and Sánchi (A. D. 80), while they are numerous at Amarávatí (A. D. 180),† suggested to Mr. Fergusson

- * See the translation of Dr. Lorimer's 'Appendix to the Bhagavad-Gítá' in Indian Antiquary, Vol. 11, p. 283. That author quotes St. Chrysostom, who died A. D. 407, to prove that a translation of the New Testament into some Indian language existed in his time.
- † This is the approximate date of the outer rail. The inner rail is later, and some sculptures date from before the Christian ora. The remains at Amarávati illustrate the period from about B. C. 100 to A. D. 250 (Burgess, Buddhisl stúpus of Amarávatí and Jaggayapetá, p. 112).

the bold speculation that the multiform idelatry of modern India is due to contact with the image-worshipping Greeks. Mr. Fergusson thus expresses this daring hypothesis in his latest work:—

"I suspect that when the matter comes to be carefully investigated, it will be found that the Indians borrowed from the Greeks some things far more important than stone architecture or chronological eras. It is nearly certain that the Indians were not idolators before they first came in contact with the Western nations. The Vedas make no mention of images, nor, so far as I can learn, [do] any of the ancient scriptures of the Hindus.

"Buddhism is absolutely free from any taint of idolatry till after the Christian era. So far as we can at present see, it was in the Buddhist monasteries of the Gaudhara country, where the influence of Græco-Bactrian art is so manifestly displayed, that 'the disease broke ont, which was afterwards so completely to transform and pervade the outward forms, at least, of all the ancient religions throughout India."*

The propositions thus stated with Mr. Fergusson's customary directness cannot be implicitly accepted, although they embody a considerable amount of truth. It is not safe to affirm that Buddhism before the Christian era was absolutely free from idolatry, for the Taxilan Buddhist temples, adorned with plaster images, were probably erected at the close of the first century B. C. and we do not know, though we may reasonably suspect, that the images are of later date. Statues found at Mathurá, and certain coins of Kanishka (circa A. D. 78 to 110) prove conclusively that images of the teaching Buddha in his conventional attitudes, both scated and standing, were well known at the close of the first century A. D.† It is rash to affirm that they were unknown a hundred years earlier. A colossal statue of the standing Buddha discovered by Sir A. Cunningham at Srávastí (Sáhet-Máhet) in Oudh seems to be slightly older than the Mathurá images.‡

It is, however, quite true that in Bihár, Central and Western India, no image of Buddha earlier than the Christian era, or perhaps than A. D. 150, is known, and Mr. Fergusson appears to have been right in holding that the worship of images of the founder of Buddhism was introduced from the North West; and it is probable that the development of sculpture, which was undoubtedly stimulated by Hellenic influence, gave encouragement to idolatrous practices.

Among all the departments of Sanskrit literature the elaborate

^{*} Archæology in India (London, Trübner and Co., 1884).

[†] Cunningham, Archwol. Reports, Vol. V, p. vii; and Gardner's Catalogue, pp. 130, 175.

I Cunningham, Archeol. Rep., ut supra, and Vol. I, p. 339.

system of Hindú logic, and the marvellous, almost miraculous, structure of grammar erected by Páṇini and his successors have the greatest appearance of absolute originality. Yot some competent scholars are disposed to seek a western origin even for these. The true position of the Sanskrit logicians and grammarians in relation to the teachers of other countries cannot be satisfactorily determined until the main outlines of the chronology of Sanskrit literature are settled definitely within narrow limits of possible error. The radius of error is gradually being reduced, but a long time must elapse before it is brought within an approximation of zero.

In one branch of Indian science the operation of direct and potent Greek influence, however it may once have been doubted, has been fully demonstrated, and is now admitted by all writers competent to form an opinion on the subject. Indian astronomy, in its exacter form, as taught in the Sanskrit text-books is essentially the astronomy of the Alexandrian schools, and its technical nomenclature is to a large extent Greek in a slight disguise. An earlier, inexact astronomy, probably of Babylonian origin, had been known in India long before the works of Alexandrian professors reached her shores, but all Indian astronomy with any claim to scientific precision is Greek. This scientific astronomy was taught by Aryabhatá in A. D. 500, and by Varáha Mihira about half a century later, but it was probably known to some persons in India at a considerable earlier date.*

It is obvious that highly abstruse and technical works like the treatises of the Alexandrian astronomers could not have been mastered by the Indian astronomers except by textual study at a time when the Greek language was still intelligible to learned men in India. The extensive importation of Greek technical terms into the vocabulary of Hindú astronomy shows that the Greek works themselves must have been read in India, and also proves that the ideas expressed by those terms were unfamiliar to the native scholars. If the ideas had been familiar, Sanskrit words to express them would have existed, and, if such words had existed, they would have been used, and the foreign terms would not have been imported. The necessity under which the Hindú astronomers lay of borrowing Greek scientific terms by the score

* Pandit Shankar Balkrishna Dikshit observes that there are two distinct and separate astronomical works, each bearing the name of Aryabhatá as its author. The first (to which reference is made in the text), known as Aryabhatíyá, or Arya Siddhánta, bears the date S'aka-samvat 421 expired, = A. D. 499-500. It has been published by Dr. Kern. The second work, known as the Laghu-Arya-Siddhánta, was composed at some time between A. D. 628 and 1150, and appears never to have been printed. These two distinct works are said to have been sometimes confounded by European writers. (Indian Antiquary, Vol. XVII (Nov. 1888), p. 312).

is very strong evidence that their native astronomy was, from the purely scientific point of view, extremely imperfect.

The knowledge of actual Greek books displayed by the Indian astronomers also shows that there is no improbability in supposing that a limited class of readers in India had studied the texts of Greek plays. Dr. Windisch is content to believe that the Greek elements in the Sanskrit drama, the existence of which he demonstrates, were assimilated by the Indian authors through the agency of performances of Greek plays on the stage. It is not necessary, he says, to assume that the texts were known in India. It seems to me impossible that the resemblances between the Greek and Indian dramas should have been brought about in this casual way. It would be nearly as easy to believe that Kryabhata learned the signs of the zodiac and the term 'diameter' from chatting with ship-captains on the quays of Barygaza. I can see no reason whatever to feel sceptical about the reality of the diffusion to a limited extent of Greek books in Greek among the learned classes of India during the early centuries of our era.

The coins and the manuals of astronomy are incontrovertible evidence that some people there could read Greek, and why it should be supposed incredible that Kálídása could read the plays of Menander I cannot imagine.

We are not bound to accept as literal statements of fact the rhetorically expressed assertions of Plutarch and Dio Chrysostom that the Indians sang the poems of Homer, and that the children of the Gedrosians recited the tragedies of Euripides and Sophocles, and may yet feel full assurance that Indian scholars who studied and assimilated Alexandrian manuals of astronomy cannot have been altogether unacquainted with the classic literature of Greece.

I have now reached the bounds to which a general survey of the action of Hellenic influence on ancient India can be conveniently extended at present. The adequate discussion of the Gándhára sculptures alone would fill a goodly volume. The imperfect account of them given above is only intended to stimulate curiosity, and to indicate the directions in which more exhaustive investigation will reward the student.

I do not desire to exaggerate the intrinsic merit of these sculptures, though I feel assured that it is amply sufficient to justify their critical study, and that, even if it were much less than it is, the historical interest attaching to the productions of a school which links together Hellenic and Indian art gives them a right to claim the attention both of Orientalists and of classical scholars.

The discovery of the linguistic and literary treasures of Sanskrit so charmed the imagination of the earlier Orientalists that they lent

a ready car to the extravagant tales of the pandits, and were willing to attribute the most venerable antiquity and almost absolute originality to the strange civilization and vast literature suddenly brought within their ken.

Modern historical and literary criticism has been steadily engaged in the task of exposing the falsity of Brahmanical tradition or pseudotradition, the "lying gabble of Brahmans," as it has been well called, and of moving up, so to speak, all dates in the early history of India. Paṇini, the grammarian, Manu, the lawgiver, Kalidasa, the poet and dramatist, and many other names famed in Indian story, have already been moved up from remote prehistoric, or pre-Christian, times to post-Alexandrian, or post-Christian, dates.*

This process still continues, and simultaneously with the demonstration of the comparatively modern date of all Sanskrit, other than Vedic, literature, the conviction has forced itself upon scholars that the civilization of ancient India was not so indigenous and self-contained as, at first sight, it seemed to be.

India may, apparently, claim with justice to have given birth independently to the mechanical process of coinage, but her weakly numismatic child never attained maturity, and was soon compelled to make way for a stranger of more vigorous growth. The other products of civilization claimed from time to time as independent Indian discoveries are now either proved to be foreign importations, or shown to be, at the best, of doubtful parentage.

I do not know any historical problem more startling at first sight than that propounded by the sudden and simultaneous first appearance in India during the third century B. C. of long documents in two diverse highly developed alphabets, of stone architecture, stone sculpture, chronological eras, inscribed coins, and a missionary state religion.

The problem has not yet been completely solved, and perhaps never can be, but it is certain that the phenomena referred to were largely due to a rapid development of intercourse between India and Western nations in the time of the Mauryan dynasty of Chandra Gupta and Aśoka (B. C. 315 to 222). A further development, or renewal, of that intercourse in the first century before, and the four centuries following, the Christian era, conflucted through Bactrian, Alexandrian, and Palmyrene channels, produced new schools of architectural, plastic, and pictorial art, introduced novel types and standards of coinage, taught science in its exacter forms, and gave birth to a dramatic literature of great variety and month.

^{*} For a convenient summary of much of the recent discussion on the chronology of Indian Literature, see Max Müller's "Iudia, What can it Teach Us?"

The same occidental influences left enduring marks on the religion and mythology of India, modified her cpic poetry, and in the opinion of some competent judges, affected even the grammar, logic, and philosophy which are the most characteristic and original products of Indian thought.

The investigation of the relations between the early civilization of India and that of Western nations is still very incomplete, but it has proceeded sufficiently far to warrant the belief that further research will magnify rather than diminish the debt due by India to Assyria, Babylonia, Persia, Greece, and Rome.

ADDENDUM.

When compiling the Bibliographical List (ante, page 113) I omitted to notice the following papers:—

(1.) Indo-Grecian Sculptures from the N.-W. Frontier, by Major J. Abbott (with a Plate). Proc. As. Soc. of Bengal for 1854, page 394.

This communication briefly notices a large box of sculptures presented to the Society which were "dug from the site of a temple on the left bank of the Indus, called Kala, close below Ghazi Huzara. The winged fomale is from another old site at present called Shah ke Tere in Quatur. They are very inferior in grace and execution to those from Trans-Indus...... Those at Kala seem to have belonged to a Buddhist temple of small size, but very righly and eleborately sculptured, the material being black clay-slate." The plate represents a head from Ráwalpindi.

- (2.) Note on a small Indo-Greek Sculpture, by the same, *ibid*, for 1858, page 261. The figure described and presented to the Society is one of the Atlantean class, purchased from a native, who had found it in an old fort of the Yusufzai at the foot of the mountains.
- (3.) Account of some of the Sculptures in the Peshawar Museum, by Rev. W. Loewenthal, ibid. for 1861, page 411.

The account given is, unfortunately, extremely meagre. It mentions Buddhas almost innumerable, kings of various sizes, a lady sitting on a lion, playing the lute, reliefs, and elaborate figures of warriors in

all kinds of dresses, sometimes purely Greek, sometimes purely Oriental, sometimes a mixture of the two.

The only work described in detail is the panel with the three Greek soldiers below, and grotesque figures above, which has been noticed in the text (Section III, page 135) Mr. Loewenthal states that this slab was "lately brought from Nagram in Yúsufzai by Lieut. Short." He observes that "some pieces of pottery have also been found in the cantonment [scil. Pesháwar], stamped with figures of pure Greek designs." I have not seen any such pottery.

JOURNAL

OF THE

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL

Part I.-HISTORY, LITERATURE, &c.

Supplement, for No. IV.—1889.

Catalogue of the Central Asiatic Coins, collected by Captain A. F. Do Læssoe, in the Indian Museum, Calcutta.—By Dr. A. F. Rudolf Hoernle.

(With two plates.)

The coins which are described in the subjoined catalogue were collected by Captain A. F. de Læssoe on the northern frontier of Afghánistán, in the years 1884 to 1886, during the time of the Afghán Boundary Commission, on which he was employed as Assistant Political Officer.

The coins were, under the orders of the Government of India, made over by him to Mr. Chas. J. Rodgers of the Archæological Survey, for a preliminary examination and report. They were afterwards presented by the Government of India to the Indian Museum, with a request that duplicates, when available, should be given to the Museum in Lahore and to the British Museum in London.

At the request of the Trustees of the Indian Museum, the coins were carefully examined by me and catalogued. Mr. Rodgers' preliminary list proved of great advantage in this work, and most of his readings and many of his remarks are embodied in the following pages.

A large number of duplicates were presented to the Lahore Museum, and a somewhat smaller number to the British Museum. The numbers from which presentations could be made, are indicated by the marks † and ‡.

The collection will be found to be one of considerable interest. A large number of coins, especially of 'Alán-d-dín Khwárizmí are either entirely new or, at least, have hitherto not been published. The most representative ones of these have been figured in the accompanying plates.

Abbreviations.

Ar. Ant. = Dr. Wilson's Ariana Antiqua; B. M. C. = British Museum Catalague; Chron. = E. Thomas' Chronicles of the Pathán kings of Delhi; Ind. Ant. = Prinsep's Indian Antiquities (ed. Thomas); Int. Num. Or. = International Numismata Orientalia; J. A. S. B. = Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal; J. R. A. S. = Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of England; Num. Chron. = the Numismatic Chronicle and Journal of the Numismatic Society of England; Num. Or. = Marsden's 'Numismata Orientalia; Or. = Oriental; Sass. = E. Thomas' Sassanians in Persia.

Explanation.

prefixed, signifies that the coin is not noted in the existing British Museum Catalogue; † signifies that specimens of the coin have been sent to the British Museum; ‡ signifies that specimens have been sent to the Lahore Museum; g signifies that the coin is in good condition, f, t, i, that it is in fair, tolerable or indifferent condition respectively.

CATALOGUE.

-		_					CATALOGUE.
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	-	Silver.	Π	Ī	Weight in grains.	Description.
							ROMAN.
2				1		42,60 28,13	peror;NINUS AU Rev., draped female seated on ground to left.
						4 - 20	GREEK.
4	1		1		- 1	47,29 55,83	Alexander. Drachm. Obv., head of king. Rev., scated Zens with eagle. (i) Antiochus. Drachm. Obv., head of king to right. Rev., Heracles seated; to left [A]NTIOXO[Y], to right [BA]ILE[\Omega]. A barbarous copy or forgery with a hole for suspension. (t)
						- 1	BACTRIAN. •
5	1					33,92	Eukratides. Drachm. Obv., head of king; border of dots. Rev., Dioscuri mounted; legend BAΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΕΥΚΡΑΤΙΔΟΥ. Type like B. M. C., vol. V., 6. Rare. This specimen is probably a forgery; the legend is smudged and "basileos" is doubletruck. None in B. M. C. of 1886, but a precimen lately obtained from Gen. Sir A. Cunninghum. Soter Megas. Obv., bust of king. Rev., horseman. Type like Ar. Ant., pl. IX, 12 with no fillet to lance, and legend BAΣΙΛΕΥ or βασιλευς.) (f)
	İ						INDO-SCYTHIAN.
7	1		. 1	ļ	26	33,77	Kanishka. $Rev.$, OKPO. Type like $Ar.$ ant., pl. XII, 17. (t)

4

mber.	f Coins.		ME	TA	L.	grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
							PARTHIAN—Contd.
20	1		1			56,44	Goterzes (Arsaces XX). As in Int.
21	3	•••	3	•••		55,14	Num. Or, vol. I, pl. V, 20. (f) † Artabanus IV (Arsaces XXVI) or Mithridates IV (Arsaces XXVII). As in Int. Num. Or., vol. I, pl. VI, 5, 22, 24, 25. Two are perforated for 'wearing, weighing 55,14 (small hole) and 51,66 (big hole); the third is entire, weighing 52,25 grains. (f, i,
2 2	1		1	•••		54,66	g) The entire one has on the rev. a trace of Mongol over-striking. Vologeses IV (Arstees XXXI). As in Int. Num. Or., vol. I, pl. VII, 10. (t)
23	1		1			44,10	Artabanus V (Arsaces XXXIV). As in Int. Num. Or., vol. I, pl. V11, 19. (i)
Ì							SUB-PARTHIAN.
24	1			1		85,02	Anonymous. Obv., head of king, to right, with torquis, as in the coins of Arsaces XXIX (Chosroes) in Int. Num. Or., vol. I, pl. VI, 17. Rev., fire-altar as on the early Sassanian coins in Sass., pl. I, 2. Unpublished. (i)
							'SASSANIAN.
25	i		1			63,20	Sapor I. As in Sass., pl. II, 2-6. With a perforation for wearing. (t)
26 27	1					162,13 192,54	Do. As in Sass., pl. II, 8, 9. (t) † Ardeshir and Sapor I. As in Sass., pl. I, 12. (i)
28 29	1					61,95 49,54	† Sapor II. As in Sass., pl. IV, 2, 3. (f) Do. Another variety. As in Sass., pl. IV, 4. (t)
30 31	1	 				62,42 62,26	† Fírúz I. As in Sass., pl. V, 8, 9. (f) Khusrú I, Naushírván. As in Sas., pl. VI, 9. (g)

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Γ	Weight in grains.	Description.
Ø	Z	9	S	O	2	🗷	
							SASSANIAN—Contd
32	2		1			62,44	VI. 14. The less perfect one weighs only
3 3	1		1		٠	51,44	53,01 grains. (g) Do. Of Arab mintage with bismillah on margin; Sass., p. 93. Perforated for
34	1		1		•	27,61	wearing. (f) Yezdegird III. Small sized coin; not in Sass. A very small piece broken away; otherwise
							in good condition. ABBASIDE.
35	1		1			43,87	Al Mansúr, 2nd Abbaside. Dirham struck in Madinatu-s-Salám, 152 A. II.
3 6	1			1		96,12	as in B. M. C., vol. I, 91 and 104. (p. 196, 201). Obv. margin not inscribed, but divided into three sections by three ringlets.
37			1	1 2 3		37,34	Rev. marginal legend, indistinctly visible read by Mr. Rodgers و بنجستان سنه سبع و , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
]	ham struck at Ma'adinu-sh-Shásh, 190 A. H. The same as B. M. C., vol. I, 228, (p. 84). With a loop for suspending. (t)
3 8	1		1			• 45,72	Al Amín, 6th Abbaside. Dirham, struck at Madinat Balkh, 195 A. H. General type of coin exactly as B. M. C., vol. I, 246, (p. 90), except that there are six
39	1	•••	1			29,50	ment (about $\frac{3}{3}$) of a dirham of 24* A. H. Mint lost. General type like B. M. C., vol.
40	1	1				54,3 8	I, 317, (plate VI). * Al Muti'a, 23rd Abbaside. Dínár struck at Hirát, 369 A. H. (f) Plate I, fig. 1.

1005	.1		nessoe & Gentral Asiatic Coins.		
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold. Silver. Copper. Mixed. Weight in grains.	Description.		
			ABBASIDE—Contd.		
			Obv., small area within single circle, surrounded by double marginal inscriptions. Area: الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل		
41	1	1 36,	ابوالفتح صحيد الله ابوالفتح صحيد الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل		

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.		Silver.	opper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
02			02			-	
							SHAH OF KHWARIZM.—Contd.
							$\it Obv.$ $\it Rev.$
							لببر الله
					•		السلطان الاعظم لالله اله
							علا الدنيا والدين و الله صحيد و
		'					ابو المظفر تكش وسول الله
						80	بن خوارزمشالا . النَّاضُوالدين
					١		بهر الله
							نيسا بورس نيسا بور Margins: fragmentary
							dim
42	1	1				33,57	struck on both sides. Obverse margin fragmentary, showing only date 5**; reverse margin gone. (i)
							بسم الف خمس ماية : Obv. margin
4 3	1	1				44,37	on rev. side only, margin entirely gone.
4 4	• 2	2				26,95 16,08	on obv. Margins nearly gone. (t) Rev. &!
	Í				1		السلطان الاعظم
						• '	على الدنيا و الدين ابوالفتے صحمه
							ابوالفتح صحمه
							بن السلطان تكش
							755
45]	1				36,34	1
46	1	1	-			23,00	and illegible. (i)

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold. Silver. Copper.	Mixed. . Weight in grains.	Description.
				SHAH OF KHWARIZM—Contd.
47	1	1	32,62	Do. Duplicate of No. 41; but double struck on rev. side, and struck on that side
4 8	4	4	44,37	only. Margin gone. (t) † Do . Duplicate of No. 44; but struck on obv. side only, on which there are no
49	1	1	47,81	ringlets. One perforated specimen weighs 25,06; two others weigh 20,91 and 18,49 grains respectively. Margins defective and illegible. (i) Do. Type: similar to No. 41, with reverse legend similar to No. 44; and on obv. side letters in place of ringlets. Both legends much blundered. Margins gone. (i) Obv. Rev.
50	1	1	. 64,07	السلطا لاعظم الاعظم الدانيا والدين الله العالم الله العالم الله العالم الله العالم الله الله الله الله الله الله الله ا

umber.	of Coins.	Mı	ETA1	-	n grains.	Decemination
Serial Number	Number of Coins	Gold.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
					24.42	SHAH OF KHWARIZM—Contd.
51	18			18	35,58	* † ‡ Do. Type I, obv., saddled horse with mint, within single-lined circle; sometimes three dots under horse; rev. inscription within singled-lined circle. One specimen was assayed by Dr. Scully with the result: copper 80.9 per cent., lead 13.5, silver 5.6. (t) Plate I, fig. 3. The mint is read by Mr. Rodgers Baluqán or Taluqán. Obv. Rev. السلطان الملون محمد المنا الدنيا رالدين محمد السلطان المنا السلطان الملطان الملطان الملطان الملطان الملطان الملطان الملطان الملطان السلطان السلطان السلطان السلطان السلطان الملطان ا
52	16			16	35,58	•
						Rev. السلطان
						الاعظم عل ا ا لدنيا والدين صحمد بن السلطان
53	5	••• •••		5	35,58	mint, but rov. legend differently arranged. Rev. السلطان الا
					ι	عظم علا الد نيا و الدين صحمد بن السلطان
54	1			1	34,44	* Do. Type I. Apparently similar to No. 51, but double-struck on both sides. (i)
55	4			4	3 7 ,89	

	. 1		200	Accessed a General Astalic Coins.		
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold. Silver. Copper. Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.		
				SHAH OF KHWARIZM—Contal. closed within double circle, the inner lined, the outer dotted. Mint Tâliqán both on obv. and rev. (i) Plate I, fig. 4. Obv. Rev. السلطان الله (in minute letters). السلطان المناف الم		
56	4		39,74	as on No. 51. * + ‡ Do. Type II, Variety 2, in all respects like No. 55, except that there is a bird to right below horse, instead of the dots. (t)		
57	ነ	1	41,00	* Do. Type II, Variety 3, similar to No. 55, but without semicircular corona, and a trefoil in the place of the bird. Inscriptions on obv. and rev. exactly as on No. 55. (t)		
58	2		39,78	*†‡ Do. Type 11, Variety 4, bow-like canopy over head of rider; crescent above over left side, and mint above over right side of rider. Rev., inscription. Both obv. and rev. enclosed within double circle, the inner lined, the outer dotted. Mint 22. (Shafarada?) or 12. (t)		
59	2.	2	33,60 36,37	السلطان الاعظم علا الاعظم علا الاعظم علا الاعظم علا الدين السلطان الدين السلطان الدين السلطان * Do. Type II, Variety 5, similar to No. 53, but bare head; crescent with dot to left and dot to right of it. Rev., inscription exactly as on No. 58. Both obv. and rev. enclosed within a single-lined circle. Mint عشور or		

Serial Number.	Number of Coins. Gold. Silver.	Copper. Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
40			10.00	SIIAH OF KHWARIZM-Contd.
60	1	1	40,09	* Do . Type II, Variety 6, similar to No. 59, but without crescent and dots, and
61	8	8	42,06	No. 58, but only with bow-like canopy. Rev., inscription as on No. 58, but below
62	2	2	27,36	waving arms, without lance. Variety 1, bird sitting to left below horse. Rev., inscription, nearly obliterated. Obv. and rev. with-
63	2	2	34,42	
64	3	3	37,09	62, but bird turned to right. Mint Táliqán, visible on obv. over right side of horse. (i) * † † Do. Type III, Variety 3, a beetle- like mark under horse; mint over right side of horse. Rev., inscription. Both obv. and rev. enclosed within double-lined circles. Mint Táliqán both on obv. and rev.
		$ \cdot $		Legends, on both sides, read and are arranged exactly as on No. 55. (i)
65	16	16	35,97	* + ‡ Do. Type III, Variety 4, a star, 5 or 6 rayed, under horse; mint over right
66	2	2		of horse. Rev., inscription. Obv. enclosed within double circle, the inner lined, the outer dotted; rev. within single-lined circle. Mint Tâliqân both on obv. and rev. Legends as on Nos. 55 and 63. Plate I, fig. 5. (Some t) * Do. Type III, Variety 5, in all respects like No. 65, except the rev. legend which reads as follows: (t)
				الا عظم صحمد بن السلطان

mber.	f Coins.]	МE	TAI		grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
67	2		ļ	ļ	2	34,55	
68	1		ļ		1	41,2 8	in all respects, except the mark under the horse which looks like an anvil (?). (i, b) * Do. Type III, Variety 7, like No. 65 except that the mark under the horse is a
6 9	2				2	36,52	snake, and the rev. legend arranged as on No. 52. (t)
7 0	2				2	•••••	the horse. (b) * Do. Type III, Variety 9, no mark under horse, which is gallopping. Both obv. and rev. enclosed within double circle,
71					1	41,91	the inner lined, the outer dotted. Rev. legend as follows: (i) [السلطان] (cut away.) الا عظم ابو الفتح عجمه بن السلطان * Do. Type IV. Obv., horseman with
,1						11,01	leafed branch in left hand. Mint doubtful over left side of horse, and bird under horse. Both obv. and rev. enclosed within double circle, the inner lined, the outer dotted. Plate I, fig. 6. (t)
	•						Obv. $Rev.$ السلطان ، (۲) زمینداور
	•						الا عظم ابو الفتع صحمه بن السلطان
72	5				5	47,25	* † ‡ Do. Type V, horseman with shouldered sword. Variety 1, bare head; mint over right side of horse; below it a flower. Rev., inscription. Mint Hirát. Both obv. and rev. within three circles, a dotted one between two lined ones. Plate I, fig. 7. (t)

•	mber.	f Coins.		Mе	TAI	·.	grains.	
	Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
•	Ī		ĺ	İ				SHAH OF KIIWARIZM-Contd.
								$Obv. \hspace{1cm} Rev.$
								السلطان or السلطان هواة
						•		السلطان or السلطان هوالا الاعظم محمد -rare الاعظم محمد بن بن السلطان ly السلطان
	7 3	6				6	45,38	* † ‡ Do . Type V, Variety 2, like No. 72, except that there is no flower below the horse. (i)
	74	3					35,52	* † ‡ Do . Type V, Variety 3, like No. 73, but the mark under horse indistinguishable; canopy over head of rider and mint Balkh بلخ (?) (i)
	7 5	6		•	•••	6	46,72	* † ‡ Do. Type VI, Obv., horseman with shouldered flag; bare head; no mint. Rev., inscription in Kufic characters. Both obv. and rev. enclosed within three circles, a dotted one being between two lined ones. Plate I, fig. 8. One specimen was assayed by Dr. Scully with the result: copper 2.2 per cent., silver 7.4, lead 85.4. (t)
								Rev. محمد بن
								ا <i>ل</i> سلطان تکش •
	76	7	•••	•••	•	7	36,88	* † ‡ Do. Type VII, bare elephant to left. Variety 1, Obv., a saw-like mark below, and a mint-name above elephant. Rev., inscription. Both obv. and rev. within double circle, the outer dotted, the inner lined. One specimen was assayed by Dr. Scully with the result: per cent. copper 39.2, silver 8.0, lead 52.7. (i)
	77	16				16	41,23	Obv. Rev. (۶) as on No. 58. * † Do. Type VII, Variety 2, simi-
	1							lar to No. 76, but no mark below elephant, and mint and inscription different. (t)

.]	ns.	,	VF 121	FAL	1	ns.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.		Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
N	Z	9	00			F	SHAH OF KHWARIZM—Contd.
1							Obv. $Rev.$
ļ							as on No. 66. عامروان
						ļ	(but without the mint).
78	1				1	34,50	* Do. Type VII, Variety 3, similar to No. 77, but different mint and inscription. (i)
ļ					Н		Obv. Rev.
]	(?) apparently as in No. 58.
79	3	3			3	34,50	* Do . Type VII, Variety 4, similar to No. 77, but different mint and inscription. (i)
				1			Obv. Rev.
		1					as on No. 52.
		1					[Shufúrqán.]
80	\ 	3	-		. 3	34,50	* † † Do. Type VII, Variety 5, similar to Nos. 77, 79, but different mint and inscription (2 i, 1f). Plate I, fig. 9.
		ľ					Obv. Rev.
							السلطان (۲) سلورقان
							الا عظم علا الدنيا و الدين
							الدنيا و الدين
		1.					محمد سلطان ٠٠
81		3	.		. 3	32,13	que the mint above is the same without
	'	1					the final 8; rev. inscription different. (t)
							1 000.
						1	ن الا عظم علا (Samarqand?) الدنيا و الدين صحمد بن سلطان
							محمد بن سلطان
							N. B. What looks like a mint name, may be only an arabesque ornamental mark.

	- 1		_	_		_	-3	
Serial Number		Number of Coins			Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
•	82	4	•••		•••	4	33,01	SHAII OF KHWARIZM—Contd. * † ‡ Do. Type VII, Variety 7, similar to No. 81, but arabesque mark above and three dots in line below elephant. Rev. inscription different; viz., (t)
:	83	19		•••		• 19	33,58	ن الأعظم علا الدنيا و الدين * † ‡ Do . Type VII, Variety 8, exact- ly as No. 82, but a different rev. inscrip- tion. (3 f)
;	84	14	•••	•		14	35,32	السطان ا السطان ا السطان ا السطان ا السطان الا عظم علا or الا عظم علا الدين الدين (on one) الدنيا والدين الدين الدين الدين الدين محمد بن سلطان محمد بن سلطان الله † Do. Type VIII, bare elephant to right. Variety I, obv., mint above elephant; rev., inscription. Both obv. and rev. within double circle, onter dotted, inner lined. (i or b)
							•	. Obv. (both in Kufic) Rev. السلطان كربروان الا عظم عالاً (similar to No. 78) الدنيا والد ين محمد بن سلطان
;	85	3				3	35,32	* Do. Type VIII, Variety 2, exactly as No. 84, but style of letters of obv. mint somewhat different. (1 t). Plate I, fig.
	86	4				4	35,32	10. * Do. Type VIII, Variety 3, exactly as No. 84, but style of letters of obv. mint slightly indifferent. (i)

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold. Silver. Copper. Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
				SHAH OF KHWARIZM—Contd.
87	3		38,91	
-				Obv. Rev.
				السلطان كوبروان
i	i			(as on No. 85) الاعظم علا
ı			! 	الدنيا والدين ٠
,				محهد بن
				سلطان
88	12		38,91	* † ‡ Do . Type IX, Variety 2, exactly as No. 87, but style of letters of obv. mint slightly different. (i, some b)
	.			Obv. Rev.
				(as on No. 87).
1	į			(as on No. 85.)
89	12		38,91	* + ‡ Do. Type IX, Variety 3, similar to No. 88, but inscription different. (i, one t)
i				Obv. Rev.
į,	.			(as on No. 84.)
				(as on Nos. 89, 84.)
90	2		38,91	* Do. Type IX, Variety 4, exactly as No. 89, but style of letters of obv. mint slightly different. (i)
				$Obv. \hspace{1cm} Rev.$
į				(as on Nos. 84, 89).
İ				(as on Nos. 85, 87).
				N

Tage Metal. Since	
Serial Number of Coins Number of Coins Gold. Silver. Mixed. Weight in grains.	
SHAH OF KHWARIZM— * Do. Type X, elephant lance at charge, to left. Varimint below elephant; rider lance in double circle, onter dotted, (t) Plate I, fig. 12.	rider with ety 1, obv., pare-headed. and rev. with-
Obr. Rer. السلطا ؟ حردروان الاعظم علا اليا والدين هد بن سلطا	ن الد مــــ
92 1 1 38,43 * † ‡ Do . Type X, Variety No. 91, but on obv. no mint; be py over rider's head; dot over head; rev. legend different. (fig. 13.	2, similar to ow-like cano- r elephant's
93 20 20 47,58 45,11 Rev. legend, as on No. 83. + ‡ Do. Type XI, lettered within circles. Variety 1, as C., vol. II, Nos. 596—600 (see fig. 599). (t, some f) Do. Type XI, Variety 2	s in B. M. Plate VII,
95 3 3 43,25 M. C vol. II, No. 594. (t) * † Do. Type XI, Variety rev. within double circle, or inner lined. On obv., two annuside of the inscription; also diverse places. (i)	3. Obv. and ater dotted, alets on each
Obv. Rev	م ا ا

-	7	_				
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	-	Silver.	Copper.	Weight in grains.	Description.
96 97				1		mah; rev. illegible. (i) * t Do. Tune XII small inner sin
98	1			1	52,53	Obv. Rev. Area: محمد السلطان الا الله الا الله الا الله الله الله
99	• 3	.		3		* Do. Type XII, Variety 3, inner area formed of three circles, a dotted between two lined; within, a sexagonal rose or star. Published by W. Rodgers in J. A. S. B. vol. L1I (1883), p. 57, No. 15 on Plate IV.
100	1			1	47,60	(i) * Do. Type XII, Variety 4, like No. 99 in every respect, except that rev. legend differently arranged. (i)

20		A	L. F. 10.	t III
Serial Number.	Gold. Silver.	Copper.	Weight in grains.	Description.
T	111			SHAH OF KHWARIZM.—Contd.
				ابوالمفقيح Rev.
İ				ابوالفقيع . Rev بن السلطان
				(lost) [تكش]
101	3	8	45,37	* † Do. Type XIII, a small inner circular area on both obv. and rev.; the latter are both surrounded by a double circle, outer dotted, inner lined. Variety 1, both inner areas formed by three circles, a dotted between two lined; within, mint Zamindawar. (i) Plate I, fig. 15 a and b. Obv. Rev.
				ابوالفتح بن : Margin السلطان الاعظم علا : Margin
				السلطان نكش الدنيا والدين ز : Area داور : Area
				Area: داور Area: میرن
102	2	. 1 2		* Do. Type XIII, Variety 2, like No. 100 in every respect, except that the circles forming the inner area are wider apart from one another, thus causing the margin to be narrower. Legends as in No. 101. (i) * Do. Type XIII, Variety 3, obv. area formed by two lined circles; rev. area by three circles, a dotted between two lined; within both areas a boss. (i)
				بوالفتح صحدبن : Marg السلطان الاعظم : Marg السلطان الاعظم : Marg السلطان الاعظم : Area : boss Area : boss
104	1	1	52,0	e 11700.

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	_	ME	Γ	Т	Weight in grains.	Description.
Serial	Numb	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weigh	
	•						SHAH OF KHWARIZM.—Contd. Obn. Rev. [السلطان الا] : Area : [لا ال] ه الا : عظم علا . [الد] محمد الدنيا والدين [رسول] الله
105				2	•••	44,23 39,98	
106	1		•••	1	•••	43,36	* ‡ Do. Type XV, Variety, 2, inscriptions in sections; on rev., date 61* in words; on obv., illegible mint (۲). Plate I, fig. 16. (t) Obv. Rev. محمد بن السلطان
							محمد بن السلطان ع. السلطان : الاعظم تكم تكش ابوالفتح مهين

							4
nber.	Coins.]	M E	TAI		grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
02	74		02	$\frac{10}{1}$		P	
107	2			2		44,24	*Do. Type XVI, on both obv. and rev., two hexagonal areas intercrossing, with three dots in each section. Mint
108	1			1		40,65	Farwán. Published by W. Rodgers in J. A. S. B., vol. LII, p. 57, on Plate IV, fig. 12.
						20,000	within double circle, outer dotted, inner lined. Rev., small double-lined square inner area; within, figure of horseman, outside inscription. As in B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. II, p. 186, on Plate VII, fig.
109]			1		57,17	603. (i) * ‡ Do . Type XVIII, large thin piece obv., circular area; rev., double-lined square area. In marginal sections, aparently, mint Ghaznah. Plate II, fig. 17. (t)
							$Obv. \hspace{1cm} Rev.$
			•				السلطان بن : Area السلطان الا : Area سلطان أمير عظم علا
							سلطان أمير عظم علا
							المومينين ابو الدنيا والدين ابو
				١.			لفتع
							Margin: Orna- Sections: ornmt., r.
						•	ments. $and l.$
							above. . below عزنه
110	1				1	43,50	* Do. Doubtful. Type XIX; obv., horseman to right, with lance at charge, within double circle, outer dotted, inner lined. Rev., inscription within single dotted circle; nearly illegible. Mr. Rodgers observes: "This is the only coin out of about 3,000, which has the horseman to
		1				•	the right."

			_	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold. Silver. Copper.	Weight in grains.	Description.
N	Z	(10 kg 20 2		
1 11	1		. 34,85	SHAH OF KHWARIZM.—Contd. * Do. doubtful. Type XX; obv., maned lion standing to left, below a dot, above mint Shafurqán. Rev., inscription within lined circle, nearly obliterated.
				شفورقان Rev
1		1 1		
		$\{\ \ \ \ $		سلطان
ļ				GHAZNAWIS AND GHORIS, ETC.
112	3	1	58,63	margins, as in B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. II,
113]		82,70	No. 524 (p. 157), but barely legible. (i) * Farukhzád ibn Masa'úd. Similar to No. 546 in B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. II, p. 166; but star (six-rayed) at top of rev. area, and zafar (six), so W. Rodgers) at top of obv. area; date 448; the remain- der identical. The outer marginal legend of obv. is nearly gone; that on reverso much cut and obliterated. (f)
114		1	1 45,56	Thrahim ibn Masa'úd; with Bull rev., and lettered surface on obv., as in B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. 11, No. 561 (p. 172), and in Proceedings, A. S. B., for 1881, p. 6.
115	•	1 1	45,69	
116	3	1 1	41,5	

							· ·
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	_		Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
117	1		•		•	267, 35	GHAZNAWIS AND GHORIS.—Contd. Obv. Rev. السلطان الا عظم الله على السلطان الا عظم الله على الله الا على الله الا على الله الله الله على الله الله الله صحيد ابو المطفو صحيد الله صحيد (illegible) Mr. Rodgers reads on the obv. doubtfully Mr. Rodgers reads on the obv. doubtfully Do. Same type, but much heavier, than No. 6 in J. A. S. B., vol. LII, p. 56 (Pl. IV, fig. 6). Without mint; but date 600 A. II. The rev. margin, as Mr. Rodgers observes, gives a quotation from the Qurán, Surah IX, 33, هوالذي ارسل رسوله بالهدى و دين الحق ليظهره على الدين كله [ولوكرة المشركون] على الدين كله [ولوكرة المشركون] على الدين كله [ولوكرة المشركون] the concluding portion of which, viz. that within brackets, is never given on these gold coins. (g)
118	1	1				232,80	* Do. Very similar to No. 117, but with mint Ghazuah, and same date 600
119	1	1		ļ		134,7 3	the matter of weight; also without mint.
120	1	1		.:.		181,51	Its date is 600 A. H. (f) Do . Same type, as No. 117, but of smaller size; date 603 A. H., mint obli-
121	1	1				122,76	terated (Ghaznah?). (t) Do. Same as No. 120, except in the matter of weight. Mint Ghaznah; date
122	2				2	43,86 42,78	obliterated (600?). Do . Type: Turkí horseman, exactly as published, by Mr. Rodgers, in J. A. S. B., vol. LII, p. 55 (Pl. IV, fig. 1.) (1 t)

ber.	Coins.]	Mе	TAI	·.	grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
123	2				2	56,68 45,45	GHAZNAWIS AND GHORIS—Contd. Do. Doubtful. Inscribed circular areas. Obv. Rev. ضرب سلطان لاعظم ع[يات]
124	1	1				116,13	* Ghiyásu-d-dín and Muizzu-d-dín bin Sám. Type the same as in No. 117. A silver coin of this type has been published by Dr. Stülpnagel in J. A. S. B., vol. XLIX, p. 31 (Pl. IV, No. 111). It shows no mint, but bears the date 599 A. H.
125	1]				45,72	*Do. Type, four concentric circles, exactly as in the silver dirhem, published by Dr. Stülpnagel, in J. A. S. B., vol. XLIX, p. 30 (Pl. IV, No. II). No mint; but date 599 on the rev. with Muizz' name.
126	2				2	45,95 42,52	Published by Mr. Rodgers, in J. A. S. B, vol. XIJX, p. 210 (Pl. XVIII, No. 17).
127	1				1	50,96	See also Ar. Ant. Pl. XX, fig. 18. (t) † Muizzu-d-dín bin Sám. Type, Tur- kí horseman; exactly as in Chron., p. 15, No. 6 (Pl. I, fig. 5). (t)
128	ļ				1	48,19	
129	7				7	55,06	t Do. Type, bull and horseman, exactly as in Chron., p. 15, No. 10, (Pl. I,
130]]		37,44	fig). (t) * Do . Type, on both obv. and rev., an inscribed hexagon formed by two interlacing equilateral triangles. (t)
							Obv. • Rev.
						-4	محمد بن (۶) السلطان سام
							مسم

							•
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	I	ME.	<u> </u>	 -	Weight in grains.	Description.
Serial 1	Numpe	Gold.	Silver.	Copper	Mixed.	Weight	
							GHAZNAWIS AND GHORI'S-Contd.
131	1			1	•••	43,51	Do. Type, circular areas, enclosed in dotted ring, exactly as published, by Mr. Rodgers, in J. A. S. B., vol. XLIX, p. 81, (Pl. V, fig. 6). (t) Obv. Rev.
							معز عدل
132	1				1	47,85	‡ Ghiyásu-d-dín Mahmúd bin Muhammad bin Sám. Type, Rájpút horseman, exactly as in Chron. p. 32, No. 25, and
133	1		ļ		. 1	40,59	Journal R. A. S., vol. IX, p. 177. * † ‡ Do. Type, elephant rider to left. Variety 1, similar to No. 91, but without lance at charge; with goad (ankus) in right land. Plate 1, fig. 19. (f) Rev. السلطان
							الأعظم غيا
							ث الدنيا و الدين
			1				ابوالفقع صحمو د بن محمد سام
							د بن محمد سام
134]	١		. 1	١	38,85	in all respects, except slightly different arrangement of rev. inscription. (i)
							السلطان Rev. الاعظم غياث
							الدنيا و الدين
						• .	(ابوالفتي صحمو]
		1					ابوالفتع صحمو] اlost.
135	5	1			1	42,06	* Do. Variety 3, similar to No. 133; but bow-like canopy over rider, and slightly different rev. inscription. (t)
							ن الا عظم غيا
							ث الدندا و الدين
-						•	محمود بن much worn.

							A 21
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	\mid	_	Copper.	Γ	Weight in grains.	Description.
Š	Ź	Ğ	2	ర	Ĭ,	M	
136	1					37,10	133, but with lance at charge, and somewhat different rev. inscription. (f)
			1				Rev. الغلطان
							الا عظم ابو
							الفآئم صحمود
			-				الا عظم ابو الفتح صحمود بن صحمد سام
137	1			1		51,18	Táju-d-dín Ildaz. Type, Turkí horseman, as published by Mr. Rodgers, in J. A. S. B., vol. LII. p. 55 (Pl. IV, fig.
138	5	.		5		51,05	2). (t) ‡ Do . Type: Rájpút horseman, as in Ar. Ant., Pl. XX, fig. 9. (t)
	1			-			NISABURI AMIRS.
139	1	1	. .			31,24	inscribed margins, as in B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. III, No. 313 (Pf. VI, fig. 313). Mint obliterated, date 57*. (t)
		j			-		بسم الله و سبعين خمسماية : Obv. margin
140	1	1	. .			26,15	t Do. Same type as No. 139, but otherwise as in B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. III, No. 314. Mint and date lost. (i)
	'			1			BENI ZENČI ATABEGS OF MOSIL.
141	•	1				87,23	* Badru-d-dín. Lúlú. Mint Mosil, date 650; in every respect like No. CLXXX in Num. Or., p. 170, (Pl. X). It differs from B. M. C., vol. III, No. 574 (Pl. X) only in the omission of the word pin the second line of the rev. area inscription, and in the date. (g)
.	.						GREAT SELJUQIS.
142	1			1.	••	48,36	Muhammad. Lettered surfaces, enclosed within double lined circles. The obv. is marked with fath, the rev. with

				_			e
ber.	Coins.]	Me'	TAT		rains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
							GREAT SELJUQIS—Contd. 'adl, as in B. M. C., vol. III, No. 67, p. 34, 35. (i) Obv. غدل Rev. عدل Rest illegible. الله محمد الرسول لله
							RUMI SELJUQIS.
143	1		1			42,58	
- 11							MALIKS OF SIJISTAN.
144	4	L		4		27,20	scribed and figured in B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. III, No. 34, (1 f, another broken in
145]	L]		29, 01	fragments). * ‡ Khalaf ibn Ahmad. Type: circular areas with inscribed margins, on both obv. and rev. The coin is in indifferent condition, and the legends difficult to read. Mr. Rodgers remarks as follows:
				.			in tughrá. بن احمد under خلن : . Obv. مما امربة الامير ابو جعفر . Rev. : etc
146	18	3		18	3	51,81 43,66	Margins not quite legible, but the mint Sijistán is quite plain." • †‡ Táju-d-dín Harab, sixth in descent from Khalaf. Type: obv., quarterfoil within double-lined circle; one pellet in each segment; rev., lettered surface within three circles, the inner and

	_			
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	METAL.	Weight in grains.	
Nan	er of		t in	Description.
rial	dan	Gold. Silver. Copper Mixed.	eigh	
Š	Z	हैं हैं हैं	≱	•
				MALIKS OF SIJISTAN—Contd.
				outermost lined, the central dotted. Plate II, fig. 20. (f)
				$\it Obv.$ $\it Rev.$
				لله تاج
				محمد حرب بن محمد
				رسول الدة الدين
				الناصرالدين محمد
				صحبد
				The obv. reads: Táju-d-dín Harb bin Muḥammad.
147	7 :	1 1	59,40	†* Ruknu-d-dín Bahrám Sháh, graudson of Táju-d-dín. Type, obv. and rev., lettered surfaces within double circles, inner dotted, outer lined. Plate II, fig. 21. (t)
				Obv. Rev.
				الله ركن الدين
				محمد ابو مفصور بن
	1			رسول الله بهرامشاه
	'	•		الذاصرالدين
14	8 1	.6 16	. 52,46 59,90	
	•			Obv. Rev.
				The same as on
				No. 146, but omitting
				محمد final بهرامشاه
				الدين
				Apparently identical with Naṣratu-d-dín, another grandson of Táju-d-dín.

_	0						21. 1. 1	to 11001110 — Carabogue of Esupplement,
	nber.	Coins.		ME	TA	L.	grains.	
	Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	opper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
•_'	20	Z	9	20	0		<u> </u>	
								MALIKS OF SIJISTAN—Contd.
]	149	3	ļ		3		51,66 51.22	.* $+ \ddagger$ Asadu-d-dín bin Harab. Type, same as No. 146. (t)
	- 1						44,72	Obv. Rev.
	ĺ					•		لله عصد
								محمد أبوالمظفر
						1		رسول الله ابن حوب
								الناصرالدين الدين
								Not mentioned in Major Raverty's list.
]	150	6			6		39,14	* † ‡ Undetermined. Obv., circular
						$ \cdot $		area with marginal inscription; rev. lettered surface within lined circle. (one t)
	}						•	Plate II, fig. 22.
	j							$Obv. \hspace{1cm} Rev.$
	1							Area: (illegible.)
								لا لله الأ الله حرب
							-	Margin: illegible. محمد رسول الله
								الناصوالدين الله
,	151	,			1		40,82	* Undetermined. Obv. worn blank;
,	191	1			1		40,02	rev. shows only $\omega(i)$, and traces of ∞ , over it. (b)
						1		MONGOL IL-KHANS OF PERSIA.
]	152	1	1		•••		50,21	* Undetermined. Circular areas with inscribed margins, on both obv. and rev. The margins are nearly gone, and the areas are much worn. Date *77. The legends as read by Mr. Rodgers, are as follows:
								$Obv. \hspace{1cm} Rev.$
								لله خان
								لا الله الا الخاقان العادل
								اللة صحيد الأعظم
								الله صحمد الاعظم رسول الله
							•	امام المسلمين ارسلان
			519					Rev. margin: w. e margin

שנים של איני של של של של של של של של של של של של של				- 1			b
153 1 1 63,52 † Jingis Khán. Type: lettered surfaces within double circle, the onter dotted, the inner lined, on both obv. and rev. (t) Obv. Rev. Jose المحال المحل ا	Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	-			Weight in grains.	Description.
الفاصرا الله العالم المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله المناس المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله المناس الله الله الله الله الله الله الله ال	153	1		. 1		63,52	‡ Jingis Khán. Type: lettered surfaces within double circle, the outer dotted, the inner lined, on both obv. and rev. (t)
العظر الحواد الله عظم المدور الله علم المدور الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل	Ì						
العظر الحواد الله عظم المدور الله علم المدور الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل							رسفور لدين الله خاقان
الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله							
cd and figured in B. M. C., vol. VI, Nos. 21, 25, and Num. Or., No. CCLXXI. But at the bottom of the obv. area is the mint Isfaráín المناه ال							
tut away. * Abága II-Khán, Obv. has inscription in Mongol characters, giving the name Abágáín; rev. has the devise of the Seljúqí coins (lion with kalimah), as on No. 143. (i) * Do. Size and type like B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. VI, No. 48; but the legend on the obv. square area is as on ibid. No. 51. Obv. Rev. Square area: الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل	154	1		1		46,15	ed and figured in B. M. C., vol. VI, Nos. 21, 25, and Num. Or., No. CCLXXI. But at the bottom of the obv. area is the mint
156 1 1 41,41 * Do. Size and type like B. M. C. of Or. Coins, vol. VI, No. 48; but the legend on the obv. square area is as on ibid. No. 51. Obv Rev. Square area: الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل	155	.]	l	1		42,60	cut away. * Abága Il-Khán, Obv. has inscription in Mongol characters, giving the name Abágáín; rev. has the devise of the Seljúqí coins (lion with kalimah), as on No.
الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله	156	1	ı	1		41,41	* Do. Size and type like B. M. C. of Or.
Square area: الله الله الا الله الا الله الا الله							the obv. square area is as on ibid. No. 51.
الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله							
الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله							
1							
157 1		•					
الله [با] قا صحمد ، [با]د شاء	157	:	1		1	62,74	*+; Do. Small size; lettered surfaces. Plate II, fig. 23. The legends as read by Mr. Rodgers are:
الله عالم عام عام عام عام عام عام عام عام عام عا							1
							()
							رسول العالم ساة

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	-	Π	Copper.	Г	Weight in grains.	Description.
158	2		•••	•••	2	63,55 66,84	MONGOL IL-KHANS OF PERSIA. There are four minute crude letters in the space between All and which may possibly be Abagha in Mongol characters. * † ‡ Do. Small size; obv. legend surrounded by arabesques within circle; rov. legend within circle. Plate II, fig. 24.
159	1				1	63,29	الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله
100		•••	•	•••	-	00,20	157, but obv. legend different. Plate II, fig. 25. Obv. Rev. as on No. العادل 157.
160	5	•••	5		•••	42,52 41,19 41,49 42,43 42,87	area. The segments contain arabosques, except one, which has the mint Marv (, o).
161	1	ļ	1			41,97	except that the mint is Isfaráin (اسفراین).
162	1		1			42,61	* Do . Similar type to No. 160, but obv. inscriptions different; those in the marginal segments being in Mongol characters. Only the legend Khaghanu (the Great Khan's) in the top-segment is legi-
				1			

			-	_			
ber.	Coins.	:	МE	TAI	ն.	rains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
163	1					49,37	MONGOL IL-KHANS OF PERSIA-Contd. ble; the name which would probably have been in the bottom segment is entirely rubbed off. This is most unfortunate, as it has been impossible hitherto to determine the coins of this type with certainty. (i) Obv
164	1	•••	1 .		•••	42,56	Obv. margin entirely rubbed away. (i) Obv. area: Rev. area: As in No. 162. القال: Margin: illegible. Margin: luk sen. * Do. Type: circular areas with inscribed margins on both sides. Obv. margin entirely rubbed away; on the rev. margin there was the date. (i) Obv. area: Rev. area: As in No. 162.
165	1		1			39,14	Margin: illegible. * Do. Type: circular area with inscribed margins. Obv., creed in area, with date on margin; rev., a bow with 2 dots within it, under the titles. Plate II, fig. 26.

mber.	f Coins.	N	AETAL		grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver. Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
						MONGOL IL-KHANS OF PERSIA-Contd.
						Obv. area : Rev. area :
-						قائي اللغ
				-	l	العادل ، لا اله الا
						الله محمد
				.		رسول ا <i>ل</i> لة
-						ضرب هذا الد
100	1		1		39,89	, ,
-						Obv. area: Rcv. area:
			. I i			قان الله
- 1					ĺ	العادل لا الم الا
l					l	3,5 th
i						رسو ل Margin : مسو ل Margin : illegible.
167	1		1		43,60	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
						Obv. area: Rev. area:
						الملك الله الا اله الا
						قان العادل الله صحمد إ
				IJ		سكة صرو رسول الله
						Segment at bottom: وستمایه others illegible.
168]		1[39,88	B. M. C., vol. VI, No. 60. Mint Baghdad, date 68*. Mr. Rodgers read the mint Qazan, which he supposes to be in Persia. There
169	2	2	2		38,23	is no star either on the obv. or rev. (g) * \uparrow Do. Similar to No. 168; but
					37,67	segments on obv. read as follows:
				;		مرو : top

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	-		Copper.	Weight in grains.	Description.
		-	-	1	<u>'</u>	
						MONGOL IL-KHANS OF PERSIA-Contd
						(۶) ستمایه left
						مرو : bottom
						ر تهاین : right
170	1		1.		34, 98	giving the mint Marw apparently twice, and the date 68* incomplete. * Do. Similar to No. 168, but in obv. area, over كا, a quarter-foil instead of the star of B. M. C., vol., VI, No. 60. Segments illegible, except on the left side مني شهور.
171	1		1		38,10	
1.1			1		77,10	but in obv. area, over 🎳, a pyramid in-
172	1	•••	1.		38,39	stead of a star. Segments, above right hand ز أمايي; other two illegable. Date 4.8 *. (/) * + \$ Do. Similar to No. 168; but right hand segment contains a bow; the three others are illegible. (i)
173	2		2.		38,83	*† † Do. Similar to No. 169, but there is a bow within the rev. area, to the
10					36,81	right of the Mongol legend. The segments read as in No. 169, but in different order:
						٠ مرو : top
						left : وثبياين Mint : Marw.
	1					bottom : مرو . , Date : 68*.
		- [right: ستهایه
174	2.		2		40,70 38,55	The right hand segment shows traces of some more letters; and it may possibly have contained the unit figure. Plate II, fig. 28. * † ‡ Do. , Same general type as in No. 168, but the Mongol leg and on rev. is enclosed within a double circle, the outer dotted, the inner lined. The obv. area is
						,

nber.	Coins.		МЕ	TAI	<u>د.</u>	grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
							MONGOL IL-KHANS OF PERSIA-Contd. marked by a quarter-foil as in No. 166. The segments read as follows:
							top : قازان Rev.
	1	1					بازار اردو عادل : 1eft
							bottom : بازار اردو in minute letters right : شاة زادة (۲) شاه زادة (۲) 3rd lines.
178	Ď	2.		2		. 39,4 39,3	
		-		1			Obv.
		1					top: نيسابور Rev.
		- 1					نيسابور سنه اربع : left
							bottom: ثمایین in minute letters right: illegible between 2nd and 3rd lines.
17	76	1		1		37,8	
							top: بازار اردو Rev.
				1			left [قارزان] illegible, except
							$\left\{ egin{array}{ll} ext{bottom} \ ext{right} \end{array} ight\} ext{illegible.}$

METAL.

Num	r of C					ingr	Description.
Serial Num	Number of	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in gr	-
177	1	•	1	•••		42,19	* Do. A similar type to No. 168, but on obv. double-lined square area within a lined circle, with arabesques in the segments; on the rev. the Mongol legend in a double-lined quarter-foil area enclosed within a double circle, the outer dotted, the inner lined. Mint Jurján. Plate II, fig. 30. (f) Obv. Rev. Area: all it all it Area:
178	. 1	•	1			60,27	Mongol رسول الله Mongol Legend رسول الله Segments: Arabesques. * Do. A new typo. Obv., circular lined area, with inscribed margin within dotted circle; rev., circular dotted area, with inscribed margin within lined circle. Plato II, fig. 31. (t) Obv. Rev. Area: گال کا کا کا کا کا کا کا کا کا کا کا کا کا
179	1	•	1			5 9,33	الا عظم صحمد وسول الله العظم الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل

						c
nber.	Coins.]	МE	TAL.	grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper. Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
						MONGOL IL-KIIANS OF PERSIA-Contd.
						$\overset{\cdot}{O}bv.$ Rev.
		!				قان الأعظم : Area الأالمة الا الله : Area ارغون بادشاة صحمد رسول الله
						illegible scrawls عادل خلد
			•			Margin: illegible. Margin: luksen.
180	1		1		37,40	* Do. Type, obv., square area, the segments apparently only filled with dots; rev., small circular area formed by three circles, one dotted between two lined ones; with inscribed margin; mint Astaribial, date [68]5. Plate II, fig. 32. (f)
						Obv. Rev.
						ان : Area لا اله لله Area
						ارغون ^م حمد رسول الله استراناد شهور : Maryin على واي الله
						المنظم ا
						Mr. Rodgers read the date ثبان, and
						observes: "I believe this is the first coin
				•		on which appears the formula الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل
181	1		1		42,66	* Do. Type: same as in No. 156. Obv. legends same as in No. 152; segments, which probably contained the mint and date, illegible. Rev., Mongol legend with Arghana. (t)
182	1		1		20,26	, ,

	ns.		Mе	/I) A T		ns.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	_	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
		Ī					MONGOL IL-KILANS OF PERSIA-Contd.
							Obv. Rev. Area: الله الله الله Area: Khagann Arbad Arghunu Margin: \$\$\$\$\$\$\$
							Margin : •••••
183	1		1	•••	•••	12,67	* Do. Type: similar to No. 156, and to B. M. C., vol. VI, Pl. II, No. 48. The obv. legend as on the latter, and as on No. 182. Both sides are almost illegible; the left hand segment on the obv. is read by Mr. Rodgers. حذونسان, mint?" (i)
184			1			18,89	
185	•1	•••	1			19,36	
186	3	•••	3			42,24 41,20 42,55	* Do. Type: similar to No. 177, obv., square area, within double circle, the inner dotted, the puter lined; segment partly inscribed, partly filled with arabesques. Rev., scollopped area, within ornamental border. Mint Isfaráou. (i)

							<u> </u>
ber.	Number of Coins.	ı	ſε	TAL		Weight in grains.	
E E	Jo.					ii g	Description.
N L	per		er.	per.	g.	ght	
Serial Number.	Nun	Gold.	$\operatorname{Sil}_{\mathbf{V}}$	Copper.	Mixed.	Wei	
•		Ī			Ì		MONGOL IL-KHANS OF PERSIA-Contd.
							$^{\cdot}Obv.$ Rev.
							Area: لا اله الا الله Khaghanu
							Arbad
			İ				Arbad Arghunu
							رسول الله Deledkeksen
		1					Segments: top اسفراین Manghu
							$\left. egin{array}{c} left \\ bottom \end{array} ight\} { m cut} { m away}$
							right: arabesque.
	}				•		The fourth line of the Mongol legend seems to read as in B. M. C., vol. VI, Pl. II,
							No. 85. The word in the fifth line is new,
						40.09	either manahu or maahnu.
187		1		<u> </u>		42,93	* Do. Type: similar to No. 168, but obv. legend as in No. 186, and the whole
							exceedingly clipped, to reduce size. Mint
				1			Nisábúr. Obv. segments as follows: Top نیسابور; left and bottom cut away;
							right: في
							•
							BUKHARA HOUSE OF TIMUR.
18	3	ı		ı		78,07	Sháh Rukh. As in B. M. C. of Ch. Coing vol VII Pl. II. No. 61. Date
		-					828 but no mint. (f)
18	9	1		1.		79,0	Same type as No. 188, except
10		-		-			that the corners of the obv. square form
					1		small ringlets. Mint Sabzawár (האָנ פור)
							between 3rd and 4th lines of rev. legend. No date, unless worn away below last line.
			1				(f)
19	0	1	••	1		74,4	sette inserted in rev. between of and settle.
	1						Mint Saltáníyah (سلطانية), dato * 47. The
				1			obv. is nearly effaced by being double struck

,	Seriai Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold.	Silver.	<u> </u>	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
1	91	1		1	•••	•••	77,98	BUKHARA HOUSE OF TIMU'R—Cont with sp. sp. In B. M. C., vol. VII, N 59, the date occupies the place of the resette. (t) Do. Obv., square area divided interesting three compartments, with one line of creed in each; inscribed segments, entirely gon Rev., circular area with illegible mint and date 848; inscribed margin, nearly gone Rev. area is counterstruck with Ab Sa'id's name.
								Olv. Rev. Counter
								وركان (P) ضرف : Area لا الغالا
								ر سعيد الله صحمت ملطان ١٩٩٨ (رسول الله
								Segments: illegible. Margin: illegible. Mr. Rodgers reads the date 848. Thi is doubtful, however; it may be 868.
19	2	1.	.	1			70,70	
								illegible.
19	3	14		1				Husain Baikara, Governor of Khorá sán (?). Compare B. M. C., vol. VII, No 123, 126. Counterstruck in lozenge, on obv (Astarábád); on rev. in small cr lozenge (Hirát). Ascription of original coin unknown.
								LINE OF SHAIBAN.
19-	1	1	-	1			1.	Abdullah M. Too illegible to be determined with certainty. Obv. area has the creed; the rev. area seems to read as in B. M. C., vol. VII, No. 150.

		,					
nber.	Coins.]	ME	TAI		grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains	Description.
							LINE OF SHAIBAN—Contd.
							الله ي
1							عـــد
							· بهادر خا
195	1			1		40,47	Mr. Rodgers ascribes it to Iskandar Sháh (as <i>ibid</i> . No. 145). Undetermined . On obv., in scolloped
10.7	•			_	l'''	20,21	,
196	1			ı		48,58	area, ضرب بلج mint Bal <u>k</u> h. (i) Undetermined . Two circular areas.
							(i)
							Obv. Rev.
							(۶) مرولا عظم
							رع) مرو …والدين
		ĺ					MANGIT DYNASTY.
197	1	1				70,50	· ·
101	-	-	•			10,00	similar in type to B. M. C., vol. VII, Pl. V, No. 179. Mint Bukhárá, date 1297. Le-
198	1		1			48,25	VII, Pl. V, No. 212. Mint Bukhárá, date
199	1		1		}	48,20	1278. (t)
100	•					10,20	date 1283 on reverse. Mint $Bu\underline{k}\underline{h}$ and (t)
					1	٠	$\it Obv.$. $\it Rev.$
							عا محمود شریف سے
							قــــدِـــت صرب بجارا
							قسبست صرب ب ج آرا حیدر مرحوم امیر
							امير
200	1			1		83,66	about 1½ inches in diameter; bilingual, Per-
					n,	•	sian and Chinese. Obv., small circular area with سكه بجارا (money of Bukhárá); broad

		_					
nber.	Coins.		МE	TAI		grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
			Π				MANGIT DYNASTY—Contd.
							ornantental margin, apparently with traces of Persian inscription. Rev., small octagonal area with Chinese legend; broad ornamental margin, apparently with Arabic inscription.
							ŞAFAWI DYNASTY OF PERSIA.
201	1		1			40,01	Ismá'il I. As described and figured by Mr. Oliver in J. A. S. B., vol. LVI, Pl. I, No. IV. Mint Nímroz, date 929. About one-third is broken off.
2 02	1		1			79,48	† Husain bin Bulaimán. As in J. A. S. B., vol. LVII, Pl. II, No. XXIV. Mint Isfahán, dato 1130. With a brass
2 03	1		1	•••		76,96	loop for suspension. (g) Do. The same, but mint Tabriz, date 1131. (g) With a brass loop for suspension.
204	1		1			. 74,15	Do. A variety of No. 202; the obv. only, but not the rev., has a marginal circle of pellets. Mint <i>Isfahán</i> , date 1120. With
2 05	1		1	•••		82,16	a brass loop for suspension. (g) † Do. Another variety of No. 202; as in J. A. S. B., vol. LVI, Pl. 11, No. XXI. The obv. margin is inscribed, the rev. margin is studded with pellets; the areas are formed by dotted circles. Mint Qazwin,
206	• 1		1		•••	80,40	date 1131. With a brass loop for suspension; also pierced near margin. (g)
207	1		1			76,90	* Mahmud. Type the same as No. 204; obv., circular area with margin studded with pellets; rev., lettered surface without margin. No mint or date. With a brass loop for suspension. Plate II, fig. 34.

Serial Number.	Number of Coins.]	ME	TAI		Weight in grains.	
Nu	r of					t in	Description.
al	nbe	٠	er.	per	ed.	gh	
Ser	Nur	Gold.	Silver.	Copper	Mixed.	Wei	
• •		Ť	1		ī	<u> </u>	CATAMIT DANAGRA ON DEDCTA C
							SAFAWI DYNASTY OF PERSIA-Contd. Obv. Rev.
							سكة صاحبقواني لا اله الا الله
					1		توفيق اله امير مية
					•		كالا صحمود سما رسول الله علم و
			,				كاة صحمود شما رسول اللغ علم و (only partially legi-
							ble.)
2 08	1		1			75,29	like No. 200, p. 67, in B. M. C., of Shahs of
							Persia. Mint Isfahán, date 1137. With brass loop for suspension. (g)
2 09	1	ļ	1	ļ	•	85,05	‡ Tahmásp II. Type similar to No.
							202, but the areas are formed by dotted circles, as in Num. Or., No. DLXXI, Mint
		1	İ			11	Isfahán, date 1147. With a brass loop for
010	,		١.			2 00	suspension. (g) Do. A variety of No. 209, obv. mar-
210	1		1	•••		76,37	gin inscribed, as in J. A. S. B., vol. LVI.
			'				Pl. III, No. XXIX. See also No. 150,
							p. 56 of B. M. C., of Shahs of Persia. Mint Tabriz, date 1134. With a brass loop
							and perforation for suspension. (g)
211	1		1	¦		82,44	Do. The same as No. 210, but mint Mashhad Muqaddas, date 1137. The mar-
					1		gins are entirely cut away, with the excep-
							on the ولي on the side with
212	6	2	2			78,48	obv. With a brass loop for suspension. (i)
212	4		2	1		77,94	Nádir. As described and figured by Mr. Oliver, in J. A. S. B., vol. LVI, Pl. III,
				1	{	,-	No. XXXV, and B. M. C. of Shahs of
							Persia, No. 1, p. 72. Mint Mashhad, date 1150. In one specimen the date is nearly
							rubbed out. With brass loop for suspen-
010	١.		١.			01.04	sion. (f)
213	,					61,24	• Do. As figured in Num. Or., No. DLXXXV, and described on p. 472. The
							margins are nearly rubbed away, hence mint
					ľ		and date almost illegible, but probably
		1	1		1		Mashhad 1150. See also J. A. S. B., vol.

	·]	_						neason a Centrus Asutto Cottas.		
mber.	f Coins.			ИE	TAI		grainf			
Serial Number.	Number of Coins		Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grainf.	Description.		
214		1					74,51	serves: "no name on the coin; obv., the distich as on Karim Khán's coins in B. M. C. of Sháhs of Persia, Introduction, p.		
215		1		1			40,51	المدينان. Rev. مُربُ دَارِالمومنَين كاشان. Mint Káshán; no date. With brass loop for suspension. (t) Undetermined. Obv., quarter-foil area with Shí'ah creed, and inscribed margin, nearly illegible. Rev., two scolloped areas, one within the other, and dotted margin. Legend in inner area illegible; outer		
216		1	ļ]			22,31			
217		1					13,56	1 PM 1 0 1 01 11		
218	•	1	•••]			163,61	ÁFGHANISTAN.		
								Obv. Revهراه مقان محمود مسلطنه		

10							•
Serial Number.	Number of Coins.	1	Æ'	FAL		Weight in grains.	•
Jun	t of					i.	Description.
7 T	-pe	Ŀ	er.	Copper.	gg.	ght	•
eri	E	Gold.	Silver.	[do/	Mixed	Υei	
· w	2	10	02				AFGHANISTAN—Contd.
	_		١,			43.44	
219			1	•••	•••	41,44	date 1241. Most of the legend gone.
				ļ			$Obv. \hspace{1cm} Rav.$
					•	•	ا ۱ ۱ ستان صحمود
		l			Ì		السلطفة
			•		'		ضرب
220] 1]			141,65	141 1 D 1 (1 Mint 173
							Obv. Rev.
							ضرب مير
							دار حمن السلطنه عبد
							[كابل] الر١٢٩٨
2 2	1	1		۱[143,10	Do. A rupee. Another Variety. Mint and date cut away. In the same condition as No. 220.
							· Obv. Rev.
							ضوب امير
							دار الرحمن
				1			[عبد]
2 2	2	5		5	•	. 142;13 141,55 141,2 138,4	2 Kábul; dates, only visible on three, ** 91, 1 *** 4, **** 4. In the same general condi-
						137,7	Ohn Rev.
							ضرب دار ن کابل حب
							كابل حب السلطنة با النما
		ļ					1 1000
							[12]97
						•	i. e. ياصاحب الزمان

Coins.	1	Ae 7	ΓAL		grains.	,
jo :					.g	Description.
pe		er.	er.	اق	ght	•
, E	olo	1146	opl	i x e	Vei	
7	19	00	0	4	<u> </u>	
						· AFGHANISTAN—Contd.
3		1			143,18	Undetermined. A rupee, with an
				ļ		incomplete and unread Persian distich on the obv.; and with mint Dáru-s-Saltanat
	.					Kábul and date 1250 om rev.
]	١	 	1		46,72	Undetermined. Obv., square area with
	ì					arabesque in segments; rev., round area with ornamental margin. No mint, date
		1				** 75.
	1					$Obv. \hspace{1cm} Rev.$
			1			Area : منب ضرب
ļ						هراه خيس
						ضرب سنّه Area: هراه هراه هراه مسبقین
	1	.	ا .	կ	43,60	Undetermined. Obv, lozenge area within ornamental margin; rev., floral geo-
	1				1	metric figure.
					[هر الا
				Ì	1 '	ضرب هرالا بلده
			١.		00 *	Undetermined A variety of No. 224.
Ó	1			ı	. 38,57	Mint Hirát on obv., and date 887 or 878 on
1						rev.
	1					البر . Ohv. ۸ ۸ سنه الا
		l	ļ			81
						\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
7	1			1	47,16	Undetermined. A variety of No. 224,
1	1		1			but obv. scollopped area, rev. square area. Mint Hirát, no date.
					1	ضوب . Rev ريخ . Obv
						هرالا التا في
						i. e., في التاريخ
В	1.			1	36,68	Undetermined. Mint Hirát; date ** 55.
						Obv., lotus shaped design; the centre has
	7	1	1	1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 143,18 1 1 46,72 1 1 43,60 1 1 38,57

mber.	f Coins.	_ N	ИЕ	TAI	ı. 1	grains.	
Serial Number.	Number of Coins	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
•				Ì	·		AFGHANISTAN—Contd.
							on two of the pedals عدل; the rest
							illegible. Rev., in round area : في
							وخمسين
229	1		•	1		77,26	Undetermined. Another variety of No. 225, but of much larger size. Mint Hirát, date 919.
							Obv. 9 ! 9
					•		ئىس 1-ھى ب
							ب هرا ه [ضر]
23 0	1			1		46,82	Undetermined. Another variety of No. 225; mint Hirát (?), date gone.
		1					Obv. نومين
		1					$Obv.$ ضرمه $oldsymbol{s}$ ،
							(٢) هراه
231	1			1	•••	34,24	Uxdetermined . Another variety of No. 225. Obv; Rev. illegible.
		1					• RAJPUTS OF INDIA.
232	1				1	52,02	Prithví Rája. As in Ar. Ant. Pl. XIX, fig. 18; Ind. Ant., vol. 1, pl. XXV, fig. 21, pl. XXVI, fig. 30; also Chron., p. 64, No. 38. (t)
2 33	4				4	• 53,23 51,97	Cháhada Deva. With legend Samantadeva; as in Ar. Ant., Pl. XIX, fig. 16; also Chron., No. 39, p. 70. (t)
234	2				2	51,45 50,74	
-						•	11. AA 11, ng. 01. (*)

							•
Serial number.	Number of Coius.	_	Silver.	Copper.	Mixed.	Weight in grains.	Description.
							RAJPUTS OF INDIA.—(contd)
235	3	ļ !•			3	49.07	Madana Pála. As in Ar. Ant., Pl. X1X, fig. 19, 23, Ind. Ant., Pl. XXV, fig. 16, Pl. XXVI, fig. 27, J. R. A. S., vol. 1X, fig. 13; also Chron., p. 62, No. 34. (t)
2 36	1		·	ļ	1	50,03	
							MUGHALS OF INDIA.
237	1		1	! 		175,25	Farrokh Siyar. A rupce. As in Num. Or., No. DCCCCXII, but mint Dárn-l-Saltanat Láhor, date 1126, regnal 2. (f)
				i			SOUTH INDIAN.
238	.,			1	,	47,62	Qutbu-d-dín Fírúz. Doubtful, but see Madras Journal of Literature and Science, for 1888-89, fig. 4, p. 56. Littered surfaces enclosed within double circle, the inner lined, the outer dotted. (i)
							$m{\phi}bv.$ Rev.
							(۲) شالا ويروز و قطب الدنيا ويروز و الدين
							ويروز (و الدين
•00	,			١,		104.00	UNDETERMINED.
239	•			1		104,80	Unknown. Circular areas with inscribed margins. Each area contains the exceedingly crude figure of an animal, which cannot be identified. The marginal legends are almost entirely worn off and quite illegible. (i)
24 0	36	3		36		23,29 13,66 12,09 11,59 7,70	Unknown. Mere copper-drops of varying sizes and weights. Mr. Rodgers observes:

				_
Serial number.	Number of Coins.	Gold. Silver. Copper.	Weight in grains.	Description.
				vex. Some weigh over 50 grains. They all agree in not being prepared for the die by cutting or hammering. No definite description has yet been deciphered. Some of them have عند ('adl) on one side; some have a geometric device. There is not sufficient inscription on any coin to enable me to assign them to any king." The weights on the margin are those of seven of the best selected specimens.

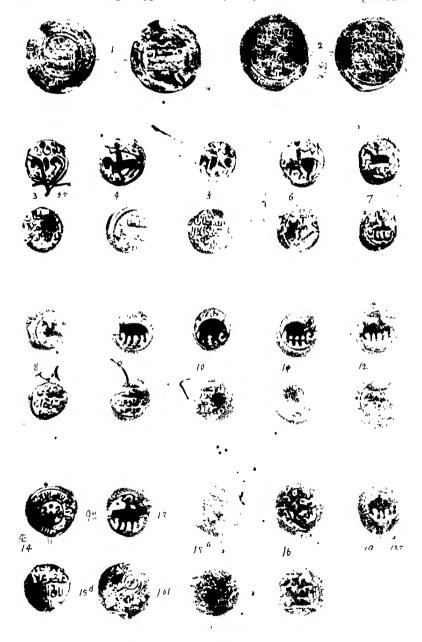
N. B. Of the following Numbers there are a number of spare specimens, all being much inferior to those selected for the Indian Museum and noticed in the Catalogue.

Nos. 51-54, 224 specimens. Nos. 60-70. 48 do. No. '75, 11 do. Nos. 76-83, 107 do. Nos. 84-86, 47 do. No. 146 , 148 do. No. 240 , 210 do.

Postscript.

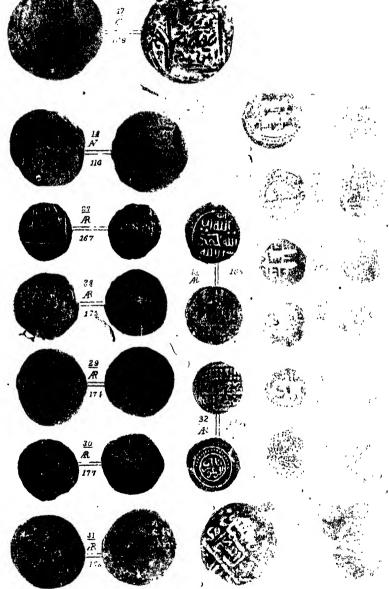
The foregoing pages had already passed through the press, when I received from Professor W. Tiesenhausen of Petersburg a copy of his paper on the Oriental Coins of Mr. Linévitch, published in the Transactions of the Oriental Section of the Russian Archaeological Society, Vol. IV, pp. 289-320. Among the coins described in this paper, I find several which appear to be identical with some in the Museum Collec-Thus Prof. Tiesenhausen's No. 6 shown in his Pl. I, figs. 2, 3 is the same as Ind. Mus. Cat. No. 77. The mint is read by the Professor as His No. 7 seems to be the same as Ind. Mus. Cat. No. 51, but in the woodcut, accompanying No. 7, the horse is shown without a His No. 8 (with a woodcut) is the same or nearly the same as Ind. Mus. Cat. No. 101. Others are: No. 1 = Ind. Mus. Cat. No. 149; No. 3 = Ind. Mus. Cat. No. 95 or No. 105. Prof. Tiesenhausen's No. 29, which is dated 798 1. H. in Timur's reign, very much resembles Ind. Mus. Cat. No. 230; and the latter therefore, is probably to be attributed to Timur. So are, in all probability, Ind. Mus. Cat. Nos. 224, 225, 226, which in design have much resemblance with No. 230. In fact, the date of No. 226 is probably to be read 788 in Timur's reign. No. 229 of the Ind. Mus. Cat., to judge from its date 919 A. H., may he a coin of Ismá'il I, the first king of the Safawi dynasty of Persia (905-932 A. H.).





Central Asiatic Coins in the Indian Maseum.

Journal As. Soc., Beng., Vol. LVIII, Pt. 1, Supplement 1889. [Plate II.



Central Asiatic Coins in the Indian Museum. COLLOTYPE. HESPRIET BROS